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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

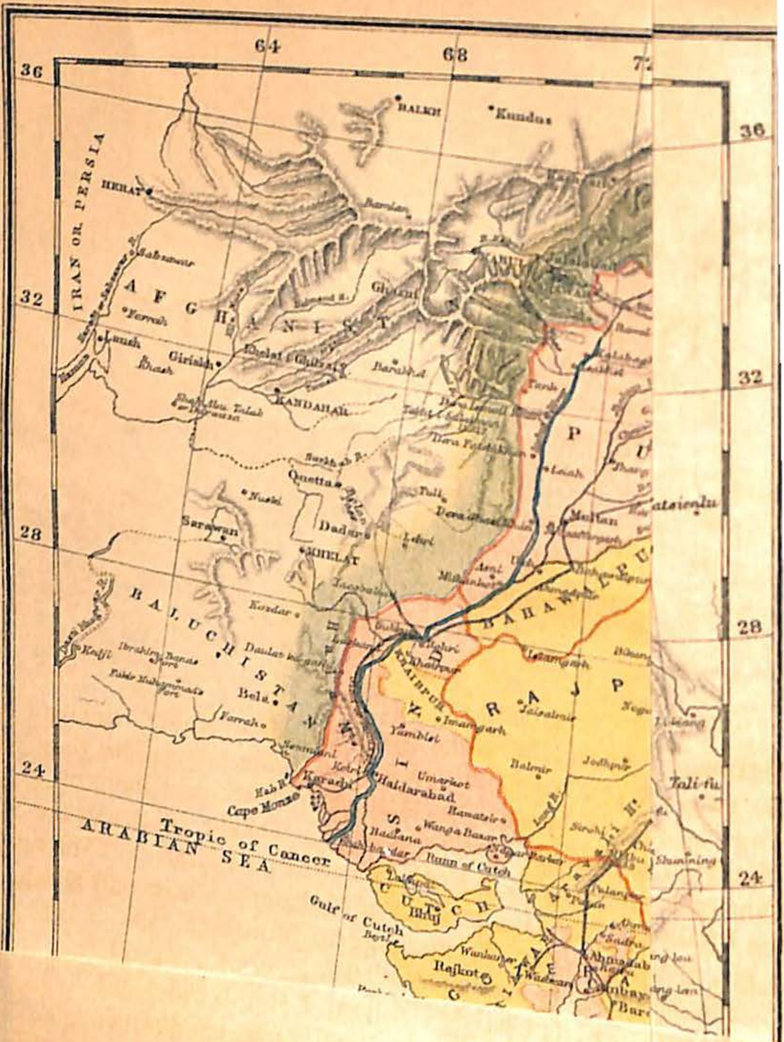
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VOLUME III.

DABHA TO HARDUAGANJ.

TRÜBNER & CO., LONDON, 1881.


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C U T C H
Bhuj
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Jaisalmir
Balmir
Jodhpur

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME III.

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Dábha.—One of the petty States of Máhi Kánta, Bombay; estimated pop. (1875), 1612; estimated area under cultivation, 5045 acres; revenue, £402. The Chief or Míah pays an annual tribute of £15 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £5 to the Thákur of Amalyára. The present ruler is a Mukwána Kolí, converted to Islámism. The religion of the Míahs of Dábha is a mixture of Muhammadanism and Hinduism; they give their daughters in marriage to Muhammadans of rank, and marry the daughters of Kolí chiefs. They burn their dead.

Dábha.—Town in Chándá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 19° 38′ N., long. 79° 42′ E. Manufactures—*tasar* silk, handkerchiefs, coloured cloths, and silver snuff-boxes. Until recently, Dábha was subject to the raids of the wild tribes across the Wardha, and even now the shopkeepers are afraid to expose their goods. Government school for boys, girls' school, police station-house, and District post office; assistant patrol of customs. The population is almost wholly Telinga.

Dabhoi.—Town in the territory of the Gáekwár of Baroda, Guzerat, Bombay; 15 miles S.E. of Baroda. Lat. 22° 10′ N., long. 73° 28′ E.; pop. (1872), 14,898. In the town is a place called *mámádokri*, where stands a *khirni* or musk-melon tree, through whose hollow trunk no guilty person can pass. Dabhoi is the old Sanskrit Dharbhavati of the 11th century, famous for its ancient fortress.

Dábhol.—Town and port, Ratnágiri District, Bombay. Of considerable historical importance, and the principal port of the South Konkan in the 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries, carrying on an extensive trade with Persia and the Red Sea ports. Also noted for its

beautiful mosque, which is the only specimen of pure Saracenic ar tecture in the Southern Konkan. Dábhol formed a province of Bijápur kingdom under Yusaf Adíl Sháh, and extended from Sávitri river to Deogarh, including nearly the whole of the pre District of Ratnágiri.

Dábling.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab; situated in lat. 45′ N., and long. 78° 39′ E., on a belt of arable land near the bank of the Sutlej (Satlej). The cliffs on the opposite side of the r rise to a sheer elevation of 6000 or 7000 feet. The population h the Chinese Tartar type of physiognomy, and profess the Budd faith. A mile east stands another village, known as Dúbling; the between the two places being rendered practicable by means of han balconies or wooden scaffolds fastened against the face of the preci The two villages generally bear the joint appellation of Dábling-Dúbl Elevation above sea level, 9400 feet.

Dacca.—A Division of Bengal, lying between lat. 21° 48′ and 26′ N., and between long. 89° 20′ and 91° 18′ E. Bounded on the n by the Gáro Hills; on the east by Sylhet District and Hill Tipperah; the south by Noákhálí District and the Bay of Bengal; and on the by Jessor, Pábná, Bográ, and Rangpur Districts. Dacca Division c prises the five Districts of Dacca, Farídpur, Bákarganj, Maimansinh, Tipperah. Area (according to Parliamentary Return 1877, and allo for recent transfers), 18,126 square miles; pop. (1872), 9,012,161.

Dacca (*Dháká*, derived either from the *dhák* tree (Butea frondos from *Dhákeswarí*, 'the concealed goddess').—THE DISTRICT OF D situated in Eastern Bengal, at the junction of the river systems o Ganges and the Brahmaputra, lies between 23° 6′ 30″ and 24° 2 N. lat., and between 89° 47′ 50″ and 91° 1′ 10″ E. long. Bounded by the District of Maimansinh; east by Tipperah; south and west by Bákarganj and Farídpur; and west, for a short distan Pábná. To a great extent, rivers form the natural boundaries: east, the Meghná; south and south-west, the Padma, or main st the Ganges; and west, the Jamuná, or present channel of the putra. The District contains (1878) an area of 2796 square m a population, according to the Census of 1872, of 1,852,993 The administrative headquarters are at DACCA CITY

Physical Aspects.—The District is divided into two natural by the course of the Dhaleswarí. The tract north of that r extension of the high lands of Maimansinh. The country flood level, and is broken by small hilly ridges running dow Madhupur jungle. The soil is red, with strata of clay and nodular limestone, and iron ore exists in considerable quantit are few rivers; and the surface is overgrown by pictures amid which cultivation is only now beginning to spread. Th

are intensified in the north-west of the District beyond Dacca city. In the north-east, towards the Meghná, the land becomes less broken and jungly, and the soil more fertile. South of the Dhaleswarí, the country presents the familiar aspect common to the greater part of Lower Bengal. The whole is one uniform level of rich alluvial soil, annually inundated by the overflow of the great rivers. The villages are built upon mounds of earth, artificially raised above the flood. During the rainy season, this tract presents the appearance of a continuous sheet of green paddy cultivation, through which boats sail to and fro. The chief means of communication at all times of the year is by water. Besides the bordering rivers of the Ganges or Padma, the Jamuná or Brahmaputra, and the Meghná, the following seven streams are navigable by boats of large tonnage:—(1) Ariál Khán, (2) Kirtinásá, (3) Dhaleswarí, (4) Buríganga, (5) Lakhmiá, (6) Mendikhálí, and (7) Gházíkhálí. Many of these represent old channels or offshoots of the great rivers; and the southern half of the District is everywhere liable to annual changes of configuration, due to the activity of fluvial action. The fisheries of the District are estimated to yield £10,000 a year.

History.—The historical interest of the District centres round Dacca city, an olden capital of the Muhammadan Mughals in Bengal, and until recent times the industrial centre of the Province. Here, as elsewhere throughout Bengal, authentic history begins with the Musalmán chronicles; but many local legends and crumbling ruins bear witness to the power of prehistoric Hindu rulers. This tract of country formed the easternmost District of Bengal, according to the natural limitations of the Province. On the north, rise the broken hills and thick jungles of Maimansinh, into which Hindu civilisation has but recently penetrated. Eastwards, the broad stream of the Meghná always served as a barrier against the wild aboriginal races, whose names are preserved in the dynasties of Tipperah and Cáchár. Before the invasion of the Muhammadans, only part of Dacca appears to have been included within the Hindu kingdom of Bengal. The course of the river Dhaleswarí, which marks off the alluvial delta of the Ganges from the highlands of Maimansinh, then served also as a political boundary. To the south of this river, the mythical monarch Vikramáditya is said to have held sway, and his name is traced in the present *parganá* of Bikrámpur. The dynasty of Vikramáditya was succeeded by that of Adisur, and the last occupant of the throne was Ballál Sen. All these names are the common property of Bengali legend. The tract north of the Dhaleswarí supplies traditions with a more distinct local colouring. Here was the home of the Bhuiyá Rájás, as they are called, the founders of a dynasty which bore the family name of Pál, and are supposed to have professed the Buddhist faith. The ruins of the capitals and palaces of these Bhuiyá Rájás lie scattered throughout Eastern Bengal, along the line of

the Brahmaputra valley; and their memory is still cherished in household tales of the Hindu peasantry. In the portion of D: District lying north of the Dhaleswarí, extensive earthworks and mou of brick associated with their name are to be seen to this da Madhabpur, Sábhár, and Durduriá.

The Muhammadans first entered Bengal in 1203 A.D., but the eas Districts were not conquered until a century later. The pre District of Dacca was annexed to the Afghán kingdom of Gaur Muhammad Tughlak about 1325, under the name of SONARGAON, wh town long remained the frontier fortress of the Muhammadans and terminus of their grand trunk road. The rise of Dacca city dates f the beginning of the 17th century, when Islám Khán, the Mughal V roy, transferred the seat of Government from Rájmahál to Dacca. change was dictated by military considerations. The valley of Ganges then enjoyed peace, but the eastern frontier of the Province exposed to the ravages of numerous warlike invaders. From the no the dreaded Ahams or Assamese; from the south, the Maghs or Ar nese, in alliance with the merciless Portuguese pirates, harried the cour and rendered all the waterways unsafe. The Mughal viceroys prote their frontier by maintaining a powerful fleet, and distributing colo of veterans on feudal holdings throughout the country. Both th features of their political system have left traces in the land ten that exist at the present day. Except during an interval of tw years, when Muhammad Shujá moved the administration back aga Rájmahál, Dacca was the capital of Bengal during the whole o 17th century. In the long list of Nawábs, the two most celebrate Mír Jumlá, the general of Aurangzeb, who failed disastrously i expedition into Assam; and Sháistá Khán, the nephew of the Em Núr Jahán, who broke the power of the Portuguese, and an Chittagong to the Mughal Empire. Both these Nawábs are also for their encouragement of architecture, and for the construc public works. This was the most flourishing era in the his Dacca, for, like all eastern cities, its glory depended up presence of a luxurious court. It is said that the suburbs e northwards for a distance of 15 miles, now buried in dense Portuguese mercenaries, and Armenian and Greek merchants at Dacca from an early date. The English, the French, and th established factories about the middle of the 16th centu the city was visited by the French traveller Tavernier. He all the wealth of Bengal, the richest Province of the Delhi Em concentrated in this spot. The muslins of Dacca became Europe, and the hereditary skill of the weaving castes ha become extinct. *Vide* DACCA CITY.

The downfall of Dacca dates from the beginning of

century. In 1704, Murshid Kuli Khán transferred the seat of Government to Murshidábád on the Bhágirathi, and the short-lived prosperity followed the movement of the court. Dacca continued to be governed by a *náib* or *nawáb*, a deputy of the Viceroy at Murshidábád, whose appointment was regarded as the most valuable in Bengal, having a jurisdiction considerably more extensive than the area of the present Dacca Division. On the establishment of the British power in 1757, the office of *náib* became an empty title, but it was continued in the family of the last representative until 1845; and even to the present day small pensions are paid by Government on this account. The decline of the weaving industry of Dacca began with the present century. Prior to 1801, the East India Company and private traders are said to have made advances for Dacca muslins to the annual amount of 25 *lákhs* of rupees (£250,000). In 1813, the investments of private traders did not exceed £21,000, and the Commercial Residency of the Company was discontinued altogether in 1817. The only event of importance in the recent history of Dacca District is connected with the Mutiny of 1857. Two companies of sepoys were then stationed in the fort. On the first alarm of the outbreak at Meerut, a force of 100 men of the Indian Navy was despatched from Calcutta for the protection of the city. With these sailors, and about 60 civilian volunteers, it was resolved to disarm the sepoys, who offered a violent resistance, and were only dispersed after a sharp struggle. Some of the mutineers are supposed to have escaped into the jungles of Bhután.

People.—No trustworthy estimates of the population in early times exist. In 1851, the total number was returned at 600,000, and in 1868, the official estimate was 1,000,000. The first regular Census was taken in January 1872. The agency employed consisted mainly of the landlords' servants, as no village officials are to be found in the District. The Magistrate expressed his opinion that the returns were 'almost, if not entirely, correct.' The result disclosed a total population of 1,852,993 persons, dwelling in 5016 *mauzás* or villages, and in 290,593 houses. The total area of the District was taken at 2897 square miles. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 640; persons per village, 369; persons per house, 674; villages per square mile, 1·73; houses per square mile, 100. Classified according to sex, there are 905,775 males and 947,218 females; proportion of males, 48·9 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years of age, 354,331 boys and 303,148 girls; total, 657,479, or 30·1 per cent. of the total population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that 296,819 persons, or 55 per cent. of the adult males, are returned as connected with agriculture, and 17,876 as cotton-weavers. The ethnical classification of the people shows 193 Europeans (including 14 Greeks), 2 Americans,

5627 Eurasians, and 121 Armenians, 964 aborigines, 250,620 semi-Hinduized aborigines, 531,437 Hindus (classified according to caste), 13,891 Hindus not recognising caste, 1,050,131 Muhammadans, and 7 Maghs or Arakanese. As throughout the rest of Eastern Bengal, the majority of the population are of semi-aboriginal descent, including the great mass of the Muhammadans, who form considerably more than half the total. The aborigines proper of the Census Report are very poorly represented, being chiefly composed of the gipsy tribe of Nats. Among the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the great tribe of Chandáls numbers 191,162. Of Hindus proper, the following are the most numerous castes:—Bráhmans, 51,632, including many Kulin families; Káyasths, or clerks by hereditary occupation, 102,084. The several artisan castes number collectively 121,952; the boating and fishing castes, 53,029; the weaving castes, 42,528.

Divided according to religion, the population is thus composed:—Hindus, as loosely grouped together for religious purposes, 793,789, or 42·9 per cent.; Musalmáns, 1,050,131, or 56·7 per cent.; Christians, 7844, or ·4 per cent.; 4 Buddhists; and 1255 'others.' Among the Hindus, the Vaishnav sect numbers 11,886 members. The Bráhma Samáj was first established in Dacca city in 1846. The society now possesses a large hall, erected by public contributions, in which meetings are held every week. There are about 100 regular subscribers, and at least 1000 sympathizers, throughout the District. The Muhammadans constitute a very important element of the community. The great majority belong to the Sunni sect. The few Shiás to be found are descendants of the Mughal conquerors. The festival of the Muharram is celebrated in Dacca city with great pomp and enthusiasm, and police measures have to be adopted to prevent an outbreak between these two rival sects. In recent years, the reforming faith of the Faráizís has spread rapidly through the District. Its members are intolerant, but not actively fanatical. Many of them are engaged in trade, dealing in rice, jute, hides, and tobacco. The acknowledged chief of the Muhammadan community in Dacca is Nawáb Abdul Ganí (1878), famous for his wealth and his liberality. The Christians of Dacca are a motley race. They include Portuguese half-castes, Armenians, Greeks, and native converts, as well as the Europeans. The Portuguese mixed breeds, or Firinghís, are scattered in little communities throughout the District. Most of them are cultivators, but many engage in domestic service. In religious matters, they are subject to the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Goa. The native converts, numbering 1901 persons, are principally Roman Catholics, under the charge of a mission sent direct from the Propaganda at Rome. There is also a Baptist mission, with about 100 converts. Both the Armenians and the Greeks are said to be now declining in numbers and social position.

According to the Census of 1872, the following 6 towns each contain more than 5000 inhabitants :—DACCA CITY, MANIKGANJ, NARAINGANJ, SHOLAGHAR, HASARA, and NARISHA; total urban population, 109,542, or 1·5 per cent. of the total population of the District. The first 3 of these towns have alone been formed into municipalities. The total municipal income in 1871 was £5833, or an average of 1s. 3¾d. per head. DACCA CITY will be fully described in the following article. The chief trading mart in the District is Náráinganj, in conjunction with its suburb of Madanganj on the opposite side of the Lakhmiá river. Apart from the increasing importance of river traffic, the people show no tendency to gather into towns, but rather the reverse. Manufacturing industry can hardly be said to exist. The following places deserve mention as sites of interest :—SONARGAON, the first Muhammadan capital of Eastern Bengal; FIRINGHI BAZAR, the earliest settlement of the Portuguese; BIKRAMPUR, the capital of the mythical monarch Vikramáditya, and his successors on the throne of Bengal; SABHAR and DURDURIA, both containing ruins of palaces ascribed to the Bhuiyá or Pál Rájás. Many earthworks and ruins of Hindu or Musalmán construction are scattered through the District.

Agriculture.—As elsewhere throughout Bengal, the staple food crop is rice, which is divided into four varieties—(1) the *áman*, or cold weather crop, which yields by far the largest portion of the food supply, sown on low-lying lands about April, and reaped in December; (2) the *áus*, or autumn crop, sown on comparatively high lands, about the same time as *áman*, and reaped in July; (3) the *boro* or *ropá*, sown in marshy ground about January, subsequently transplanted, and reaped in May; (4) the *uri* or *jará dhán*, an indigenous variety found growing wild in the marshes, which is used as food by the poor. No improvement has recently taken place in the cultivation of rice, and sufficient is not grown to satisfy the local demand. Other crops include millets, pulses, oil-seeds, jute, cotton, indigo, safflower, *pán* leaf, *supári*-nut, cocoa-nut, and sugar-cane. The cultivation of cotton has fallen off, but the fibre produced is said to be of excellent quality. The chief staples of export are jute, oil-seeds, and safflower, all of which are being more extensively grown year by year. Manure is not generally used, and never for rice land. Irrigation is sometimes practised in the north of the District, and, in the same tract, fields are occasionally suffered to lie fallow. In the south the land is under continuous cultivation with the same crops, and the cultivators trust to the deposit left by the annual inundation to maintain the fertility of their fields. About two-thirds of the total area of the District is estimated to be under cultivation. The out-turn of rice varies from 13 cwts. to 26 cwts. per acre. The best rice lands yield a second crop of oil-seeds or pulses. The out-turn of jute is about 17 cwts. per acre. The cultivators, as a class, are described as fairly pros-

ŀerous. Comparatively few of them have obtained rights of occupancy; but the recent rise in the value of all agricultural products, caused by the development of trade, has distinctly raised the standard of comfort among them. Rates of rent for rice land vary from 1s. 10d. per acre for *boro* to 9s. per acre for *áman* land. Land that produces two crops sometimes rents at as much as 12s. an acre. As compared with the neighbouring Districts, Dacca has few great landlords, and subinfeudation has not been carried to an excessive extent. There are seldom more than two classes of intermediate tenure-holders between the *zamíndár* and the actual cultivator. In the majority of cases, the landowner collects his rents by the agency of his own servants, and not through the intervention of a farmer. Spare land at the present day is only to be found in the hilly, broken tract in the north of the District, where the aboriginal tribes of Tipperahs and Kochs are gradually extending the limit of cultivation.

Dacca District is not specially subject to natural calamities, such as flood, blight, or drought. Each of these does occasionally happen, but rarely on such a scale as to affect the general harvest. In the year 1777-78, a terrible inundation occurred, succeeded by a calamitous famine. But, in more recent times, the drought of 1865 and the flood of 1870 merely raised the prices of grain, and did not produce acute distress. If the price of rice at the beginning of the year were to rise to 16s. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching scarcity. At the present time the means of communication with other Districts by water are so good, and the ordinary course of trade is so active, that importation could at any time prevent scarcity from growing into famine. There is no demand for either embankments or canals.

Industrial.—The chief means of communication are by water. The rivers are crowded by native craft and by steamers at all seasons of the year, and no corner of the District is remote from some navigable channel. The principal road, the only one under the Public Works Department, leads from Dacca city through Tipperah to Chittagong. A second important road runs northward through the high country to Maimansinh. The only road that carries much traffic is the branch from Dacca city to the port of Náráinganj, which is metalled. There are two short navigable canals, only open during the rainy season; bu no railway in the District. The principal manufactures are cotton weaving, embroidery, silver-work, shell-carving, and pottery. Th muslins of Dacca, once so celebrated, have now almost entirely cease to be made. A few pieces are occasionally woven to order, to satis the taste of the curious. Coarse cotton cloth is still woven all over t District. The gold and silver smiths and the shell-carvers work their own houses, and on their own account; and their condition decidedly prosperous. The weavers and embroiderers, on the ot

hand, manufacture their goods on behalf of merchants, working on a system of advances. The merchants take care that the artisan shall always continue in their debt.

Dacca conducts a very large trade by water, and many of the merchants push their enterprise into remote countries. Europeans, Armenians, Muhammadans, and Márwárís maintain a brisk competition with each other. In former times, the export of manufactured cotton goods was by far the most important branch of trade. The two largest marts of commerce are Dacca city and Náráinganj, with its suburb of Madanganj. A commercial fair is annually held at Munshiganj, lasting for three weeks, which is attended by merchants from such distant quarters as Delhi, Amritsar, and Arakan. According to the registered statistics of river traffic for the year 1876-77, the total value of the exports from Dacca District was £1,944,000—including jute, £742,000; rice, £232,000; hides, £131,000; oil-seeds, £51,000; spices, £46,000; betel-nuts, £39,000; safflower, £19,000. The total value of the imports was £3,245,000—the chief items being piece-goods, £795,000; salt, £304,000; food grains, £366,000; tobacco, £169,000; sugar, £255,000; timber, £135,000. On the balance of trade food grains were imported to the weight of 1,256,400 *maunds* of 82 lbs.

There are four printing-presses in the District, and six or eight newspapers are published regularly. There are six native societies organized for the spread of education and other charitable objects, besides 'The Dacca Institute,' common to natives and Europeans.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the total revenue of Dacca District was £111,620, of which £53,671 was derived from the land; the total expenditure was £50,631, or less than half the revenue. In the same year, the regular police force numbered 430 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £8552. In addition, the village watch numbered 3068 men, who received from the villagers sums estimated at £6903; and the municipal police consisted of a force of 263 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £2023. The total force, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 3761 men, or 1 man to every 0·8 square mile, or to every 493 of the population; the total cost was £17,478, being an average of £6, 0s. 5d. per square mile, and 2¼d. per head of population. The number of 'cognisable' cases conducted by the police was 2084, in which the proportion of convictions was 53·9 per cent. The number of 'non-cognisable' cases instituted was 4101. In 1868, the average daily number of prisoners in the District jail was 436, of whom 8 were females; being 1 prisoner to every 4250 of the population. The average cost was £4, 19s. 4d. per head. Jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £166, 7s. 3d.

Education has made rapid progress in recent years. In 1860-61,

there were altogether 21 schools in the District, attended by 2003 pupils. By 1870-71, the number of schools had risen to 149, and the number of pupils to 7155. In that year, the total amount spent on education was £11,343, towards which Government contributed £6945. Sir G. Campbell's reforms, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was extended to the village schools or *páthsálás*, has greatly promoted primary instruction. In 1874-75, the number of schools had further increased to 416, and the number of pupils to 17,937, showing 1 school to every 6·9 square miles, and 9·1 pupils to every 1000 of the population. The chief educational institution is the Dacca College, originally started in 1835. The present buildings were completed in 1846. There is a staff of professors teaching up to the standard of the University entrance examination, and also an English school department.

For administrative purposes, Dacca District is divided into 3 Subdivisions, and into 12 *thánás* or police circles. The number of *parganás* or fiscal divisions is 182. In the year 1868, there were 8 magisterial and 25 civil and revenue courts open; the number of European covenanted officers stationed in the District was 4.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Dacca during the hot months is sensibly cooled by the circumstance that the wind has passed over the wide surface of large rivers. The rainy season lasts from April to October. The most disagreeable weather in the year is experienced at the close of this season. The average rainfall for the ten years ending 1870 was 75·23 inches. Earthquakes are of common occurrence. Specially severe shocks were experienced in April 1762, April 1775, and May 1812.

The principal endemic diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers, elephantiasis and bronchocele, dysentery and diarrhœa, rheumatism, ophthalmia, and intestinal worms. Cholera and small-pox both occasionally visit the District in an epidemic form. No attention whatever is paid to sanitation in the rural tracts; but the munificence o Nawáb Abdul Ganí has recently presented Dacca city with a fund fo undertaking sanitary improvements, and also with a pure water suppl The following are the results of the system of collecting vital statisti in certain selected areas for the year 1874. In the urban area, whi is co-extensive with Dacca city, the death-rate was 25·20, and the bir rate, 26·53 per 1000. The death-rate in the rural area was 26·23 1000. The institutions for medical relief comprise the lunatic asylu the Mitford Hospital, an almshouse founded in 1866 by Nawáb Ab Ganí, and 5 charitable dispensaries. In 1871, the dispensaries and hospital were attended by 1092 in-door and 20,732 out-door patie the total expenditure was £1761, towards which Government co buted £742.

Dacca.—Headquarters Subdivision of Dacca District, lying between 23° 34′ and 24° 20′ 12″ N. lat., and between 90° 2′ 45″ and 91° 1′ 10″ E. long.; including DACCA CITY. Area, 1926 square miles; townships, 3302; houses, 165,537; total population (1872), 1,007,073, of whom 413,293 were Hindus, 585,805 Muhammadans, 4 Buddhists, 7308 Christians, and 663 of other denominations. Average number of persons per square mile, 523; townships per square mile, 1·71; persons per township, 305; houses per square mile, 86; inmates per house, 6·1. Dacca Subdivision includes the 7 police circles of Lál Bágh, Sábhár, Kápásiá, Ráipur, Rúpganj, Náráinganj, and Nawábganj. Magisterial and revenue courts (1869), 10; police force, 550 men; village watch, 1192 strong. Separate cost of administration (1869) returned at £3067, 7s. from District funds, besides £1714, 8s. expended by the municipality.

Dacca.—The city of Dacca, the chief town of the District and Commissionership of the same name, and the fifth largest city under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, is situated on the north bank of the Buríganga river, in 23° 43′ N. lat., and 90° 26′ 25″ E. long., 8 miles above the confluence of the Buríganga with the Dhaleswarí. The municipal limits include an area of about 8 square miles, and the population, according to the Census of 1872, numbers 69,212 persons. In 1876–77, the gross municipal income was £8827; rate of taxation, 2s. 2⅝d. per head.

The town extends along the bank of the river for a distance of nearly 4 miles, and inland, towards the north, for about one mile and a quarter. It is intersected by a branch of the Dolái creek. The two principal streets cross each other at right angles. One runs parallel to the river for upwards of two miles, from the Lál Bágh Palace to the Dolái creek. The other leads north from the river to the military cantonments; it is about one mile and a quarter in length, of considerable width, and bordered by regularly built houses. The *chauk* or market-place, a square of fine dimensions, lies at the extreme west. The remainder of the town is composed of narrow, crooked lanes, few of which admit wheeled conveyances. The native houses vary in height from one to four storeys. In some of the crowded quarters, such as those occupied by the weavers and shell-carvers, each house has a frontage of only 8 or 10 feet; but the side-walls run back for a distance of 60 feet. The two ends only of such houses are roofed in, the middle forming an open court. The houses of the European residents extend along the river for a space of about half a mile, in the centre of the town. In the Armenian and Greek quarters, there are several large brick houses, now falling into decay. Dacca preserves few traces of its former magnificence as the Muhammadan capital of Bengal during the 17th century. The old fort, erected in the reign of the Emperor

Jahángír, has entirely disappeared. The only public buildings of this period still remaining are the Katrá, built by Sultán Muhammad Shujá in 1645; and the palace of the Lál Bágh, which several successive Nawábs intended to associate with their name, but which was never completed. Both these buildings are now mere ruins, and their decorations have been wantonly destroyed. The factories built by the English, the French, and the Dutch during the 17th century have also been swept away. An outline of the history of the city has been given in the preceding article on DACCA DISTRICT. The city was first selected as the seat of Government about 1610, owing to its convenient position for controlling the waterways of the delta, which were then ravaged by Portuguese pirates in alliance with the Arakanese. In 1704, the Nawáb Murshíd Kulí Khán moved his residence to Murshidábád; and though Dacca long retained a titular Nawáb, its glory departed with the removal of the court. When in the height of its prosperity, Dacca must have been very populous. Its suburbs are said to have extended 15 miles northwards, as far as the village of Tungí, where mosques and brick houses are still to be discovered buried beneath thick jungle. During the 18th century, Dacca won a new reputation for its manufacture of fine muslins, which became famous in the markets of the West. The cotton grown in the neighbourhood is said to be of peculiarly fine quality. The weavers, who were mostly Hindus, attained a wonderful delicacy of taste and dexterity of manipulation, by means of hereditary devotion to their industry. At the close of the last century, the annual investment made by the East India Company and by private traders for Dacca muslins was estimated at £250,000. But in the beginning of the present century, this industry began rapidly to decline, under the competition of cheaper piece-goods from Manchester. By 1813, the value of the private trade had fallen to £20,000, and four years later, the Commercial Residency of the Company was closed. The prosperity of the city has never recovered from this second blow. The reduced and impoverished population, the ruinous and abandoned houses, still show the disastrous results of the loss Dacca has sustained in her cotton manufactures. In 1800, the number of inhabitants was estimated, and apparently not over-estimated, at 200,000; in 1830, a Census of th town showed that the total had fallen to 67,000. A small colony c weavers of muslin still exists, who produce fabrics of exceptional exce lence, working under a system of advances from native capitalists. I recent years, the general development of trade throughout Bengal h brought back to Dacca a little of its former wealth. The city is favo ably situated to command the three river systems of the Ganges, t Brahamputra, and the Meghná. If we include the commerce Náráinganj and Madanganj, which may be regarded as the river po of Dacca, its total trade exceeds that of any inland mart of Ber

except Patná. The collection of jute, oil-seeds, rice, and hides, and the distribution of piece-goods and salt, constitute the most important functions of the Dacca merchants; and Dacca boatmen are well known throughout Bengal as the most adventurous of their class. In the year 1876-77, the total trade of Dacca city, excluding Náráinganj and Madanganj, was valued at £1,183,000. The chief articles of export were—hides, £130,000; jute, £79,000; food grains, £41,000; the imports included—piece-goods, £436,000; cotton twist, £79,000; timber, £35,000; and salt, £25,000.

The population of the city is thus classified in the Census Report of 1872:—Hindus, males 20,102, females 14,331—total, 34,433; Muhammadans, males 17,022, females 17,253—total, 34,275; Christians, males 258, females 221—total, 479; 'others,' males 18, females 12—total, 30. Grand total, males 37,395, females 31,817—total, 69,212. The large proportion of females among the Muhammadan population is worthy of notice. The total of Christians includes a few Armenians and Greeks, who formerly conducted a considerable share of the trade of the city. Foremost among the citizens of Dacca (1878) may be mentioned Nawáb Abdul Gani, C.S.I., who in 1866 founded the Langar Khána, or almshouse, for the accommodation of poor persons permanently disabled from work. He has since made a donation of £5000 to the municipality for the carrying out of sanitary improvements; and in the present year (1878), the system of waterworks has been opened, which he constructed for the city at his own expense.

Dacca is well provided with educational institutions. The Dacca College, with a staff of European professors, is one of the best of its class in India. In 1874-75, the average daily attendance of students was 105. Each student pays 10s. a month. The total cost was £2765, towards which Government contributed £2017; the average cost per student was £26, 6s. The number of candidates sent up for the first arts examination was 40, of whom 11 passed. In connection with the college there is an English school department, and English is also taught at the four following schools:—The Pogose School, established by a wealthy Armenian gentleman; the Bráhma Samáj School, the Boys' School, and the Bángálá Bázár School.

Until the conservancy reforms effected by the aid of the liberality of Nawáb Abdul Gani, the sanitary condition of Dacca city had been very unsatisfactory. During the rainy season, the whole city is surrounded by a labyrinth of brimming creeks, and the low-lying suburbs are liable to be flooded every year. In former times, the simplest rules of conservancy were disregarded, and much difficulty has been experienced in overcoming the traditional prejudices of all classes of the community. It is hoped, however, that the health of the city will

now be sensibly improved by the reforms that have been recently carried out, and by the introduction of a pure water supply. In the year 1874, the reported death-rate was 25·20 per 1000, and the birth-rate 26·53. The principal charitable institution is the Mitford Hospital, established in 1858, by a bequest of a member of the Civil Service. The wards are well planned and lofty, and the building stands in grounds of its own, by the river-side. In 1871, the daily average of in-door patients was 57·42, and of out-door patients, 58·29. The total expenditure was £1421, towards which Government contributed £542. A permanent endowment of £16,000 was left by the founder.

Dádar.—Town in Kachhi Province, Baluchistán; situated in lat. 29° 28′ N., and long. 67° 34′ E., on the Bolan river, about 5 miles east of the BOLAN PASS, and 37 north-west from Bágh; elevation above sea level, about 700 feet; pop. not exceeding 2000. Surrounded by bare and rocky hills, which render the heat in summer perhaps greater than that of any other place in the world in the same parallel of latitude. Dádar is supplied with excellent water from the river Bolan during a great part of the year. Wheat, cotton, cucumbers, and melons are grown in the neighbourhood of the town.

Dadhálya.—One of the petty States in Máhi Kánta, Bombay. The area of the land under cultivation in 1875 was estimated at 5000 acres, the population at 3448, and the revenue at about £300. The Thákur is a tributary chief, paying annually £70 as *ghás-dána*, or forage for cattle, to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £61 as *kichri*, or supplies for troops, to the Rájá of Edar. He has enjoyed semi-independent power since the establishment of his family in Máhi Kánta. The family are Sesodia Rájputs, who originally came from Udáipur (Oodeypore) in Rájputána. The first Thákur entered the service of the chief of Edar with a body of horse, and obtained the gift of 48 villages, in 1674. At a later date, the Dadhálya chief, refusing to serve under the Márwár princes who assumed the Government of Edar, had his grant reduced to its present limits.

Dádri.—Village in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the Grand Trunk Road, 20 miles north-east of Bulandshahr, and 23 miles south-east of Delhi. Pop. (1872), 2223; police station, post office, village school, encamping ground for troops. The railway station (East Indian Railway) is a mile and a half S.-W. of the village. Fort built at the end of the 18th century by Dargáhi Sinh, whose descendants held estates in the neighbourhood till 1857, when they joined the rebels. Two members of the family were hanged, and thei[r] possessions were confiscated. Colonel Greathed's column occupied Dád[ri] on the 26th of September 1857, and, finding much property taken fro[m] Europeans, burned the neighbouring villages.

Dádú. — A *táluk* in the Sehwán Deputy Collectorate, Karác[hi]

(Kurrachee) District, Sind. Lat. 26° 29′ 30″ to 26° 56′ 30″ N., long. 67° 22′ 30″ to 67° 57′ 45″ E.; area, 746 square miles; pop. (1872), 66,350; revenue (1873-74), £14,616, of which £13,467 was derived from imperial, and £1148 from local funds.

Dádú.—Municipality and chief town in above *táluk*, Karáchi District, Sind. Lat. 26° 43′ 30″ N., long. 67° 49′ E. Pop. (1872), 3357, principally agriculturists; Muhammadans, 2434, of the Sayyid, Memon, Chaki, and Lashári tribes; Hindus, 923, chiefly Lohános. *Múkhtiárkár's* station, post office.

Daflapur (or *Jath*).—One of the Satára *jágírs* in Bombay, whose chief, 'The Duflay of Jath,' takes his name from the town of Daflapur. Lat. 17° 0′ N., long. 75° 7′ E. In 1820, the British Government made an engagement with the ancestors of the present chief, confirming them in the estates then held. In 1827, the estate was attached by the Rájá of Satára to pay off the chief's debts, but, after their liquidation, it was restored in 1841. The British Government have more than once interfered to adjust the pecuniary affairs of the *jágír*; and, in consequence of numerous oppressions, were compelled in 1872 to assume the direct management on behalf of the holder. The *jágírdár* pays to the British Government £640 per annum in lieu of the service of 50 horsemen, and a tribute of £473. He also pays £95 to the Panth Pratinidhi of Aundh from the revenues of certain villages. The area of the *jágír* is about 885 square miles; population (1871), 70,665; revenue, £8364. The town of Daflapur lies about 80 miles south-east of Satára, and 85 north-east of Belgáum.

Daga.—A creek in Pegu Division, British Burma, which leaves the BASSEIN RIVER 3 or 4 miles from its northern mouth, in Henzada District, in lat. 17° 42′ 0″ N., and long. 95° 25′ 0″ E., and after a tortuous south-west course, rejoins it near Bassein town, lat. 16° 55′ 0″ N., and long. 94° 48′ 0″ E. The northern entrance has silted up, and is now completely closed by the embankment of the Bassein; the bed for about 8 miles down, as far as Rwathit, is dry during the hot season. In the rains the downward current is strong, but in the dry season the tide is felt as far as Thabye-hla at neaps, and 15 miles farther at springs. The Daga is navigable by river steamers during the rains for 36 miles, from its southern outlet to the Meng-ma-hnaing creek; it is practicable all the year round for native craft as far as Kyún-pyaw, where the creek is from 200 to 300 feet wide, and 10 to 15 feet deep. A few miles below Kyún-pyaw is the Eng-rai-gyí Lake, communicating with the Daga by a small channel.

Daga.—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma, to which is now joined Shwe-gnyoung-beng. Pop. (1876), 2227; gross revenue, £641.

Dagshái.—Hill cantonment in Simla District, Punjab; situated

on a bare and treeless height, 16 miles south of Simla, on the cart-road to Kálka, in lat. 30° 53′ 5″ N., long. 77° 5′ 38″ E. Established in 1842; now regularly occupied by a European regiment. The station, though usually healthy, suffered from an epidemic of cholera in 1872. Supplies are drawn from Kasauli.

Da-gyaing.—River in Amherst District, Tenasserim, British Burma. Rises in the Dawna spur, and, flowing westward, joins the Hlaingbhwai about half-way between the villages of Khazaing and Hlaingbhwai. In the rains it brings down a considerable body of water, but a swift current and numerous rocks render it unnavigable.

Dáhánu.—Seaport and municipal town in the Dáhánu Subdivision of Tanna District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 58′ N., long. 72° 45′ E.; pop. (1872), 3186; municipal revenue (1874-75), £90; rate of taxation, 6¾d. per head. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74—exports, £10,339; imports, £2150.

Dahi.—Petty State in Chakalda, tributary to Holkár, to whom it pays £30. It is under the Bhil Agency, a department of the Central India Agency.

Dahira.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of 3 villages, with 6 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £1000.

Dai-da-rai.—Revenue circle in Thonkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the right bank of the To river, about 15 miles from its mouth. Pop. (1876), 5319; gross revenue, £3106.

Daing-bún.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan, British Burma. Area, 117 square miles; pop. (1876), 4111. The southern portion is divided into numerous islands by inter-communicating tidal creeks. Gross revenue (1876), £3108.

Dáin-hát.—Trading town and municipality in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 36′ 24″ N., long. 88° 13′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 7562. Situated on the banks of the Bhágirathi; fair held here. Manufactures, weaving and brass-work; trade in grain, tobacco, jute, salt, English cloth, cotton, etc. Gross municipal revenue (1876-77), £367; average rate of taxation, 11⅝d. per head of the population.

Dai-pai. — Lake in Karoung township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated near the foot of the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yomas, covering an area of nearly one square mile. Supplied principally by the drainage from the neighbouring hills; during the rains it has a depth of 9, and in the dry season of 4 or 5, feet.

Dájal.—Town in Derá Gházi Khán District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 33′ 22″ N., long. 70° 25′ 21″ E.; pop. (1868), 5695, comprising 1044 Hindus, 4554 Muhammadans, 8 Síkhs, and 89 'others.' First rose to importance under the rule of the Náhirs (*vide* DERA GHAZI KHAN DISTRICT), from whom it was wrested by Gházi Khán; subse-

quently fell into the hands of the Kháns of Khelát. Formerly a thriving town, trading with the country beyond the British frontier, but now in a decayed state, the traffic having taken different channels. Forms with the adjoining village of Naushahra a third-class municipality; revenue (1875-76), £284, or 10¾d. per head of population (6335) within municipal limits.

Dákátiá. — River of Bengal; rises in Hill Tipperah, and flows through the southern portion of Tipperah District, where it is joined by numerous mountain torrents. After taking a westerly course past Lákshám, Chitosi, and Hájíganj, the Dákátiá sweeps suddenly round to the southward 6½ miles east of Chándpur, and empties itself into the Meghná a little above the village of Ráipur, in Noákhálí District.

Dakhineswar.—Village on the Húglí, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated a little north of Calcutta. Contains a powder magazine, and a few country-houses of Europeans. Also noted for its twelve beautiful temples in honour of Siva, built on the river bank. Aided vernacular school here.

Dákor.—Municipal town in the Thásrá Subdivision of Káira District, Bombay; 16 miles north-east of the Anand railway station. Lat. 22° 45′ N., long. 73° 11′ E.; pop. (1872), 7740; municipal revenue (1874-75), £807; rate of taxation, 2s. 1d. per head. Dákor is one of the chief places of pilgrimage in Western India. There are monthly meetings, but the largest gatherings take place about the full moon in October-November, when as many as 100,000 pilgrims assemble. Dispensary and post office.

Dakshin (*Dakhin* or *Deccan*).—Tract of country in Southern India. —*See* DECCAN.

Dakshín Sháhbázpur.—A large low-lying island in the Meghná estuary, and now a Subdivision of Bákarganj District, Bengal; situated between 22° 16′ 45″ and 22° 51′ 30″ N. lat., and between 90° 39′ 30″ and 90° 57′ 15″ E. long. Created a separate administrative Subdivision in 1845, finally transferred from Noákhálí to Bákarganj in 1869; comprises the two *thánás* or police circles of Daulat Khán and Dhaniá Maniá. Area, 818 square miles, with, in 1872, 345 villages, 23,715 houses, and a population of 221,037. The cyclone of 31st October 1876 is said to have swept away almost the entire population of Daulat Khán. The island is a typical deltaic tract, formed out of the silt brought down by the Ganges and Brahmaputra. Its level is said to be higher than that of the adjacent delta or the Bákarganj mainland. The strong 'bore' of the Meghná at spring tides rushes up on the east of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, flooding all the water-courses and creeks. The north and eastern sides are being cut away by the river, many homesteads with their palm groves annually disappearing in the river; while large alluvial accretions are constantly forming farther down the estuary, at the southern point

f Dakshín Sháhbázpur. Seat of a court, with 75 regular police and 182 village watchmen; total cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £1525.

Dala.—A suburb of Rangoon town, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the right or western bank of the Rangoon river. Formerly the Dala district included Angyí, now a township of Rangoon District, and Pyapún, a portion of Thonkhwa; but these were transferred at the end of the last century. In 1650 A.D., Dala is said to have been subject to the King of Burma; at one time it belonged to Pegu, at another it was under an independent governor.

Dala.—A creek in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma, which empties itself into the Rangoon river opposite Rangoon town. On the west side of its mouth are dockyards, and to the east, timber yards and steam sawmills. In the dry season it is navigable for a few miles only.

Dala-nwon.—River in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Rises in the eastern spurs of the Pegu Yomas, and, flowing south-east, falls into the Tsittoung a few miles below Thayet-thamien. Navigable by large boats as far as Thonkhwa.

Dalgomá.—Village in Goálpára District, Assam, at which a large fair is held annually in January, on the anniversary of the death of a former high priest of the temple. Lat. 26° 6′ N., long. 90° 49′ E.

Dalhousie.—Municipal town, cantonment, and hill sanitarium in Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 31′ 45″ N., long. 76° 0′ 15″ E. Occupies the summits and upper slopes of three mountain peaks in the main Himálayan range east of the Rávi river; distant from Pathánkot 52 miles north-west, from Gurdáspur 75 miles; elevation above sea 7687 feet. To the east the granite peak of Dáin Kúnd, clothed with dark pine forests, and capped with snow even during part of summer, towers up to a height of 9000 feet; while beyond, again, the peaks of the Dháola Dhar, covered with perpetual winter, shut in the Káng valley and close the view in that direction. The scenery may compa favourably with that of any mountain station in the Himálayan ran The hills consist of rugged granite, and the houses are perched i few gentler slopes among the declivities; but building sites are and difficult to obtain, so that most of the houses are double-stor The first project for the formation of a sanitarium at this spot origin with Colonel Napier, now Lord Napier of Magdala, in 1851. In th lowing year, the British Government purchased the site from the Rá Chamba, and the new station was marked off in 1854. No syste occupation, however, took place until 1860. In that year, Dalh was attached to the District of Gurdáspur; the road from the plai widened, and building operations commenced on a large scale. were stationed in the Balún barracks in 1868, and the sani

rapidly acquired reputation as a fashionable resort. The town now contains a court-house, branch treasury, post office, dispensary, church, and several hotels. The sanitary arrangements are still somewhat imperfect. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £649; pop. within municipal limits (1868), 2019.

Dálingkot (or *Damsáng*).—A hilly tract situated east of the Tístá, west of the Ne-chu and De-chu rivers, and south of Independent Sikkim. It was acquired as the result of the Bhután campaign of 1864, and now forms a part of DARJILING DISTRICT, Bengal.

Dalli.—Ancient chiefship in Bhandára District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1870), 2331, chiefly Gonds, residing in 17 small villages, covering an area of about 53 square miles, of which 6 are rudely cultivated. The Great Eastern Road runs across Dalli, through the Mundipár Pass, the hills round which furnish an abundant supply of bamboos. The chief is a Gond. Principal town, Dalli, situated in lat. 21° 5′ 30″ N., long. 80° 16′ E.

Dalmá.—The principal hill in the mountain range of the same name in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; height, 3407 feet. It has been described as the 'rival of Párasnáth,' but it lacks the bold precipices and commanding peaks of that hill, and is merely a long rolling ridge rising gradually to its highest point. Its slopes are covered with dense forest, but are accessible to men and beasts of burden. The chief aboriginal tribes living on Dalmá Hill are the Kharriás and Paháriás.

Dálmau.—*Parganá* of Lálganj *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Rái Bareli *parganá;* on the east by Salon: on the south by Fatehpur District, the Ganges marking the border line; and on the west by Khíron and Sareni *parganás.* Originally held by the Bhars till their extirpation by Ibráhim Sharki of Jaunpur, but first created a *parganá* by Akbár. The Bais were almost the sole proprietors till the forfeiture of the great estate of Rájá Beni Madhu, and its distribution among other proprietors. A large and fertile tract, with an area of 253 square miles, of which 121 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £41,114, being at the high rate of 5s. 1d. per acre. Of the 292 villages comprising the *parganá*, 213 are held under *talukdárí* tenure, 33 are *zamíndárí*, and 14 *pattidárí*, while 32 are Government grants. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 138,757; Muhammadans, 6331; total, 145,088, viz. 72,135 males and 72,953 females; average density of population, 573 per square mile. Ten market villages, of which LALGANJ is the most important. Main imports —rice and sugar from Faizábád (Fyzabad), and cotton from Fatehpur; extensive trade in cattle. Saltpetre was formerly manufactured in considerable quantities, but the industry now exists on a small scale in only two villages. Two large annual fairs, each attended by about 50,000 persons, are held in the *parganá*.

Dálmau.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; on the right bank of the Ganges, 16 miles south of Rái Bareli town, and 14 miles north of Fatehpur. Lat. 26° 3′ 45″ N., long. 81° 4′ 20″ E. The town is said to have been founded about 1500 years ago by a brother of the Rájá of Kanauj. It was for long in the possession of the Bhars, and the surrounding country was the scene of a protracted struggle maintained by that tribe against the encroachments of the Muhammadans. About 1400 A.D., the Bhars were almost annihilated by Sultán Ibráhim Sharki. Several Muhammadan mosques and tombs, in various stages of decay, and the ruins of the ancient Bhar fortress, attest the bygone importance of the town. During the last century it has steadily declined. Its population in 1869 consisted of 4940 Hindus and 914 Muhammadans; total, 5854, residing in 656 houses, of which 245 are of brick. The principal buildings are several mosques, an old Hindu temple, and a *saráí* or rest-house. Three bi-weekly markets, police station, post office, Government Anglo-vernacular school. Large annual fair, attended by from 50,000 to 60,000 persons, is held on the last day of Kártik, at which a considerable trade is carried on.

Dálmí.—Site of remarkable Hindu ruins on the Subarnárekhá river, Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 4′ N., long. 86° 4′ E. They comprise an old fort, with the remains of curious temples, dedicated both to the Sivaite and Vishnuvite objects of worship.

Daltonganj.—Administrative headquarters of Palámau Subdivision, Lohárdagá District, Bengal. Prettily situated on the North Koel river opposite the old town of Sháhpur. Lat. 24° 2′ 15″ N., long. 84° 6′ 40″ E. A brisk local trade is springing up. A court-house, and the usual Sub-divisional offices. Named after Colonel Dalton, late Commissioner of Chutiá Nágpur.

Daltonganj Coal-field.—The name given to an area of 200 square miles in the valleys of the Koel and the Armánat rivers. The civil station of Daltonganj lies just beyond its southern border. Of the whole field, only about 30 square miles are important as coal-bearing tracts.

Damalcherri.—Pass in North Arcot District, Madras; by which the Marhattá chief Sivají made his first descent (1676) upon the Karnatic; and here, in 1740, Dost Alí the Nawáb was killed in battle with the Marhattás. Lat. 13° 25′ 40″ N., long. 79° 5′ E. During the campaign of 1780-82, it formed the main route for the supplies of Haidar Ali's troops when invading the Karnatic.

Dáman (or '*The Border*;' so called from its position between the Sulemán Mountains and the Indus).—A tract in the Punjab lying between 28° 40′ and 33° 20′ N. lat., and between 69° 30′ and 71° 20′ E. long. Comprises the portions of Derá Gházi Khán, Derá Ismáil Khán, and Kohát Districts on the western bank of the Indus; length, from the Salt Range on the north to the confines of Sind on the south,

miles; average breadth, about 60 miles. Naturally bare and devoid of vegetation, it derives fertility in the part bordering the Indus from irrigation in connection with that river. The southern portion of the Dáman is known as the Deráját. For further particulars see the separate Districts.

Damán.—A Portuguese town and Settlement in Guzerat, situated about 100 miles north of Bombay. Including the *parganá* of Nagar Haveli, it contains an area of 82 square miles, with an estimated population of 40,980 persons. It is bounded north by the river Bhágwán, east by British territory, south by the Kalem, and west by the Gulf of Cambay. Damán town is situated in lat. 22° 25′ N., long. 72° 53′ E.

The Settlement is composed of two distinct portions, Damán proper and the *parganá* of Nagar Haveli, separated from it by a narrow strip of British territory, 5 to 7 miles in width, and intersected by the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. Damán proper, or the town of Damán, was sacked by the Portuguese in 1531, rebuilt by the natives, and retaken in 1558 by the Portuguese, who made it one of their permanent establishments in India. They converted the mosque into a church, and have since built eight other places of worship. It contains an area of 22 square miles, and lies at the entrance of the Gulf of Cambay. It is subdivided by the river Damán-Gangá into two separate tracts, known as *Damao Grande* (Great Damán) and *Damao Piqueno* (Little Damán). The first, on the south, contiguous to the British District of Tanna, comprises 23 villages; while the other, consisting of 14 villages, lies towards the north and borders on Surat District. This portion of the Settlement was conquered from Bofata on the 2d of February 1559, by the Portuguese under Dom Constantino de Braganza. The *parganá* of Nagar Haveli, situated towards the east, has an area of 60 square miles, and is likewise subdivided into two parts, called Eteli Pati and Upeli Pati, containing respectively 22 and 50 villages. It was ceded to the Portuguese by the Marhattás, in indemnification for certain piratical acts committed against a ship carrying a flag of the former nation, in accordance with the treaty signed at Poona on the 6th of January 1780.

Physical Aspects.—The principal rivers are—(1) the Bhagwán, forming the northern boundary of the Settlement; (2) the Kalem, running along the southern boundary; and (3) the Sandalkhál or Damán-Gangá (Border Ganges), a deep navigable stream, rising in the Gháts about 40 miles east of Damán proper. All these fall into the Gulf of Cambay. The Damán-Gangá has a bar at its mouth—dry at the lowest ebb tides, but with 18 to 20 feet of water at high tides. Outside this bar is a roadstead, where vessels of 300 to 400 tons may ride at anchor, and discharge cargo. Damán has long enjoyed a high celebrity for its docks and shipbuilding yards, due chiefly to the excellent teak with which the country is stocked. The climate of the place is gene-

rally healthy throughout the year. The Settlement has no minerals, but possesses stately forests in the *parganá* of Nagar Haveli, whose total value is estimated at about £444,000. About two-thirds of these forests consist of teak (Tectona grandis); the other timber-trees include —*sadra* (Pentaptera glabra), *khayer* (Acacia catechu), *sissu* (Dalbergia latifolia), *cabeariti* (?) (Acacia sundra), *tanas* (Dalbergia ujjainensis), *siwana* (Gmelina arborea), *dambora* (Conocarpus latifolius), *hedu* (Nauclea cordifolia), *asan* (Briedelia spinosa), *timburni* (Diospyros montana), and *bábul* (Acacia arabica). The forests are not conserved, and the extent of land covered by each kind of timber has not yet been precisely determined.

Agriculture.—The soil is moist and fertile, especially in the *parganá* of Nagar Haveli. Principal crops—rice, wheat, the inferior cereals common to Guzerat, and tobacco. Despite the facility of cultivation, only one-twentieth part of the territory is under tillage. In the *parganá* of Nagar Haveli, the greater part of the soil is the property of Government, from whom the culivators hold their tenures direct. A tax is levied on all lands, whether alienated or the property of the State. There is, however, no fixed rate of assessment, as the tax is regulated by a general estimate of the productiveness of each village. The total revenue thus obtained amounts to about £800.

Trade, etc.—Before the decline of the Portuguese power in the East, Damán carried on an extensive commerce, especially with the eastern coast of Africa, to which the cotton fabrics made at Damán were largely exported in vessels carrying the Portuguese flag. From 1817 to 1837 there was a flourishing trade with China in opium imported from Karách (Kurrachee). But since the conquest of Sind by the British, the tran port of opium has been prohibited, and thus Damán has been deprive of its chief source of wealth. The customs revenue in 1874-75 w £1106. In old days, Damán was noted for its weaving and dyeir The former industry is still carried on to a limited extent, chiefly the wives of Musalmán *khalásis*, while the latter is almost extinct. T piece-goods, made from a mixture of English and country twist, are a quality and pattern worn only by the natives of Goa, Mozambic and Diu, to which places they are exported. Mats and baskets *khajuri* and bamboo are manufactured on a large scale. A notewo feature in connection with the industrial occupations of the place i deep sea fishing, giving employment to 150 vessels, each with a of about 30 *khandis*. They make for the coast of Káthiáwár, Diu, where they remain for some months, and return laden with s fish cured on board.

Administration.—The total revenue of Damán in 1873-74 amo to £7960, 10s., of which the larger portion was derived fro *parganá* of Nagar Haveli. The chief sources of revenue are lan

forests, *abkári* or excise, and customs duties. The expenditure in the same year was £7880, 4s.

Population.—The total population of the Settlement is estimated at 40,980, of whom 12,980 (almost entirely Hindus) inhabit the *parganá* of Nagar Haveli. According to the Census of 1850, the population of Damán proper was returned at 33,559—it is now said to be reduced to 28,080—being Europeans, 14; descendants of Europeans, 23; native Christians, 2220; Hindus, 21,743; Muhammadans, 3714; Pársís, 188; and Africans, 178. The total number of houses amounts to 8151; but only a very few are of any size or pretensions. The native Christians adopt the European costume. Some of the women dress themselves after the present European fashion, while others follow the old style once prevalent in Portugal and Spain, viz. a petticoat and mantle.

The territory of Damán forms, for administrative purposes, a single District, and has a municipal chamber or corporation. It is ruled by a Governor invested with both civil and military functions, subordinate to the Governor-General of Goa. The judicial department is superintended by a judge, with an establishment composed of a delegate of the attorney-general, and two or three clerks. The public force consisted, in 1874, of 194 officers and men. Damán has two forts, situated on each side of the river Damán-Gangá. The larger, on the south, is in *Damao Grande*, and the smaller, on the north, in *Damao Piqueno*. The former is almost a square in shape, and built of stone. It contains, besides the ruins of the old monastic establishments, the Governor's palace, together with the buildings appertaining to it, military barracks, hospital, municipal office, court-house, jail, two modern churches, and numerous private residences. On the land side, this fort is protected by a ditch crossed by a drawbridge, while at its north-west angle extends the principal bastion, which commands the entrance to the harbour. It is occupied by the Governor and his staff, the military establishments, officers connected with the Government, and a few private individuals; all are Christians. The smaller fort, which is a more recent structure, is placed by the Portuguese under the patronage of St. Jerome. Its form is that of an irregular quadrilateral, enclosed by a wall somewhat higher than that of the other fort. The principal buildings within it are a church, a parochial house, and a mortuary chapel surrounded by a cemetery. Both the forts have brass and iron cannon on the walls, some of which are mounted, and others either attached to old carriages or lying on the ground. Damán, with its population of 40,980, has only 4 schools, with 94 pupils.

Dáman-i-Koh.—A tract of hilly country in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal. Area, 1366 square miles, which was marked off by a ring fence in 1832; pop. (1872), 264,313; number of houses, 51,726; average number of persons per house, 5·1. The population of

Maheshrekhá in Howrah District, whence they reach Calcutta *viâ* th Ulúbáriá Canal and the Húglí. In seasons of abundant and evenly distributed rainfall, each boat can make two or three trips betwee June and October. The Dámodar is subject to sudden freshets, whic used to desolate the surrounding country in Mánbhúm and Bardwá Districts. In 1770, a flood almost totally destroyed Bardwán town ruined the whole line of embankments, and caused a severe loca famine. In 1823, and again in 1855, inundations swept away th river-side villages, and the terror of a similar calamity has deterred th people from building on many of the deserted sites. 'Picture to your self,' writes the *Calcutta Monthly Journal* in 1823, 'a flat country com pletely under water, running with a force apparently irresistible, an carrying with it dead bodies, roofs of houses, palanquins, and wreck o every description!' The floods lasted for three days, during which th fortunate owners of brick tenements camped on their roofs. The ol landmarks of the peasants' holdings were swept away, and many year of bankruptcy and litigation ensued. Since the construction of th railway, which for a space follows the course of the Dámodar, and th improvement of the river embankments, which Government took int its own hands after the flood of 1855, calamities on this scale hav been unknown. The Dámodar embankment now protects the countr northwards of the river; and the damage caused by inundations on th southern or right bank are comparatively insignificant.

Damoh.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of th Central Provinces, lying between 22° 10′ and 23° 30′ N. lat., and 79° and 80° E. long. Bounded on the north by Bundelkhand, on t east by Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), on the south by Narsinhpur, and the west by Ságar (Saugor). Population in 1872, 269,642; area, 27 square miles. The administrative headquarters of the District are DAMOH, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—The contour of the District is irregular, an parts ill-defined. To the south, a lofty range of sandstone hills sepa Damoh from Narsinhpur and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), and at places s forth spurs and ridges into the plain below. But these elevations a a rule insignificant in size, and add but little beauty to the lands On the east rise the Bhondlá Hills, which run eastwards till are lost in the loftier range of the Bhánrer Mountains. The hyáchál Hills, which stretch for a considerable distance alon western boundary, though of no great height, form the most pictu feature of the District—from time to time opening out into bro lands, thickly wooded with low jungle. In this part of Dam overlying trap of the Ságar plateau is met with. From these which more or less distinctly mark it off on three sides, Damoh in a vast tableland, sloping gradually towards the north, till an

dip in the surface occurs, beyond which the plains of Bundelkhand may be seen stretching far away into the distant horizon. Except on the south and east, where the offshoots from the surrounding hills and patches of jungle break up the country, the District consists, therefore, of open plains of varying degrees of fertility, interspersed with low ranges and isolated heights. The richest tracts lie in the centre. The gentle declivity of the surface, and the porous character of the prevailing sandstone formation, render the drainage excellent. All the streams flow from south to north. The Sonár and the Bairmá, the two principal rivers, traverse the entire length of the District, receiving in their progress the waters of the Beas (Biás), Koprá, Guvayyá, and smaller tributaries, rolling with a rapid stream towards the northern boundary of Damoh. As it approaches the frontier, the Sonár takes a bend eastwards, and joins the Bairmá; the united stream then leaves Damoh behind it, and, after receiving the Ken, falls into the Jumna. Little use has yet been made of any of the rivers for irrigation, though in many places they offer great facilities for the purpose.

History.—In early times the Chandel Rájputs of Mahobá, in Bundelkhand, administered the present Districts of Ságar and Damoh by means of a deputy placed at Balihrí, in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). Excepting a few temples known as *marhs*, of rude architecture, and entirely destitute of inscriptions, the Chandels have left no monuments of their rule. On the decay of the Chandelí Ráj, about the end of the 11th century, the greater part of Damoh became dependent upon the Gond power, which had its seat at Khatolá, in Bundelkhand, until its subversion about 1500 by the notorious Bundelá chief, Rájá Barsinh Deva. The Muhammadan power made itself felt in Damoh from a very early period. A Persian inscription, formerly affixed to the principal gateway of the town of Damoh, purports to have been placed there during the reign of Ghíyás-ud-dín (A.D. 1367-1373). Two hundred years, however, elapsed from this time before the Muhammadans actually occupied the District. Their invasion met with little opposition, except at Narsinhgarh, where the Gonds made a show of resistance to Sháh Taiyab, the commander of the Imperial forces. During the supremacy of the Muhammadans, Damoh, Narsinhgarh (or as they called it, Nasratgarh), and Lakhroní were the principal towns; and their presence may still be traced in the ruins of forts, tombs, and mosques. The Muhammadan element in the population is now very insignificant both in numbers and in position; and though the Kázís of Narsinhgarh claim descent from Sháh Taiyab, they have fallen so low that they are glad to take service as messengers and process-servers. When the Mughal Empire began to give way before the rising Marhattá power, the Muhammadans fast lost their hold over such outlying dependencies; and Chhatra Sál, the powerful Rájá of Panna, took the

opportunity to annex Ságar and Damoh. The Gonds and other wild tribes, however, who held the more mountainous regions in the south and east of Damoh, never acknowledged his authority. In his time was built the fort of HATTA. In the year 1733, Rájá Chhatra Sál was forced to solicit the assistance of Bájí Ráo Peshwá to repel an invasion of the Nawáb of Farrukhábád from the north. To repay the service then rendered, Rájá Chhatra Sál consented to the cession called the *tethrá*, by which all his territory was divided into three equal parts—one for each of his two sons, and the remaining third for the Peshwá, whom he formally adopted. In this distribution, a part of Damoh was allotted to each of the three; but no long time elapsed before the Marhattás wrested the whole of the District from the Bundelás. From this period, Damoh continued subordinate to the Marhattá governors at Ságar (Saugor), until by the treaty of 1818 it was made over to the British. Under the plundering revenue system of the Marhattás, wide tracts relapsed into jungle, and the cultivating classes sank into a state of hopeless poverty. Half a century of British administration has now brought about a new era of prosperity for Damoh. Our earlier land settlements, based on the Marhattá records, pressed heavily on the agricultural population; but this error has been rectified, and the District now enjoys a light assessment and fixed tenures. The result has already manifested itself in the spread of cultivation, and in the high market value of land, in some cases exceeding thirty years' purchase. The official records of Damoh were destroyed in the disturbances of 1857.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the populatio[n] of Damoh at 262,641; the more careful Census of 1872 at 269,64[2]. The latest estimate, in 1877, indicates a total of 283,394 inhabitan[ts]. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detail[ed] examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 269,642 p[er]sons, living on an area of 2799 square miles, residing in 1128 villages [or] townships and 57,688 houses; persons per square mile, 96·34; villa[ges] per square mile, ·4; houses per square mile, 20·61; persons per vill[age] 239·04; persons per house, 4·67. Classified according to sex—m[ales] 139,962; females, 129,680. According to age, the male childre[n in] 1877 numbered 50,470; the female, 45,650. Ethnical division in [1872] —Europeans, 5; Eurasians, 18; aboriginal tribes, 32,528; Hi[ndus] 237,204; Muhammadans, 8064; Buddhists and Jains, 5418. The [most] numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds, of whom there [were] 30,209 in 1872, the remainder consisting chiefly of Kúrkús. A[mong] the Hindus, in 1872, the Bráhmans numbered 21,378, the mass [of the] Hindu population consisting of Lodhís (33,342), Kurmís (20,664) [and] other inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 6.

Division into Town and Country.—There are only two towns in

District with a population exceeding 5000—viz. DAMOH, the District capital (pop. (1876), 8189); and HATTA (pop. 6251). Townships of 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 33; from 200 to 1000, 394; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 699. Damoh and Hatta form the only municipalities, containing a population (1876) within municipal limits of 8690 and 6633 respectively.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 2799 square miles, only 678 square miles are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 815 are returned as cultivable. Only 1271 acres are irrigated—entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 1s. 4½d. per acre of cultivated land, or 10d. on the cultivable land. Wheat constitutes the principal crop, being grown in 1876, on 204,650 acres, while 133,152 acres were devoted to other food grains. Rice and oil-seeds form the only other important produce. The cultivation of cotton is small and decreasing. The average rent per acre of land suited for wheat is 2s. 9d.; for inferior grain, 1s. 7d.; for rice, 2s. 6d.; and for oil-seeds, 2s. The produce per acre averages—wheat, 460 lbs.; inferior grain, 320; rice, 720; and oil-seeds, 360. The average prices in 1876 per cwt. were—wheat, 4s. 6d.; rice, 5s. 8d.; and linseed, 6s. 10d. The usual wages for skilled labour amounted to 1s. per diem; for unskilled labour, 3d. The Census of 1872 showed a total of about 4400 proprietors, of whom 1207 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered nearly 34,000, of whom 20,643 were tenants-at-will, while the remainder had either absolute or occupancy rights. The best agriculturists are the Kurmís, who are said to have immigrated from the Doáb about 250 years ago. The circumstance that their women engage in field-work equally with the men, contributes in no slight degree to their success. A most peaceable race, and remarkable for their loyalty to the ruling power, the Kurmís are exceedingly tenacious of their ancestral holdings, and will hardly alienate their rights in land under the greatest pressure. The Lodhís, who rank next as agriculturists, made their way into the District about three centuries ago. Often turbulent and revengeful, they form good soldiers, and are generally excellent sportsmen. Both Kurmís and Lodhís make no distinction between a mistress and a wife, provided the former is of the same caste as her partner, or, what is more respectable still, the widow of an elder brother or cousin. The children born from such connections inherit property, of whatever kind, equally with those born of regularly married wives. In the wooded and hilly portions of Damoh, many Gonds pursue agriculture after a humble fashion; in the plains they are principally employed as farm servants. Of the 71 villages held by Muhammadans, 63 are in possession of one family, who obtained a whole *táluk* in proprietary right as a reward for loyal services rendered during the Mutiny.

Commerce and Trade.—The chief trade of the District is conducted at

the annual fairs held at Kundalpur and Bándakpur. The Kundalpu
fair takes place in March, beginning with the yearly gathering of Jain
immediately after the *Holí* festival, and lasts a fortnight. It owes it
origin to the Jain temple erected at Kundalpur by the Punwár Bania
to which the neighbouring Jains resorted to worship Nemináth, and t
settle caste disputes. In these adjudications, the delinquents ofte
incurred fines, which supplied a fund for the repairs of the temple, an
for embellishing the place with tanks and groves. The fairs at Bán
dakpur are held in January and February, at the *Basantpanchmi* an
Siva-rátrí festivals respectively, when crowds of devotees visit the plac
for the purpose of pouring water from the Ganges or Narbadá (Nerbudda
on the image of Jágeswar Mahádeva, in fulfilment of vows made, fo
prayers granted, or favours solicited. Of the offerings made to the
god on these occasions, to the value of nearly £1200 in the year
one-fourth becomes the property of the priests. The proprietor of the
temple claims the remaining three-fourths, and is said to expend his
share on religious objects. This temple was erected in 1781 by the
father of Nágojí Ballál, a respectable Marhattá *pandit* of Damoh, in
obedience to a dream, which revealed to him that at a certain spot in
the village of Bándakpur an image of Jágeswar Mahádeva lay buried
There he built a temple; and in due time, as the vision foretold, the
image arose without the help of man. The fame of this occurrence
has attracted throngs of pilgrims, and consequently of traders, and, i
January 1869, the attendance amounted to 20,000 persons. Piec
goods manufactured at Mariá-Doh, hardware, with trinkets made
Hindoriá and Paterá, form the articles chiefly dealt in. The impo
traffic on the north-east frontier is considerable, consisting of Europe
and country-made piece-goods, betel, cocoa-nuts, hardware, tobac
spices, rum, and sugar from Mírzápur and the north-west. But a gr
proportion of these goods merely passes through the District on the
to Ságar and Bhopál. On the other hand, the Banjárás bring la
quantities of salt from the Rájputána salt lakes, by way of Ságar
Damoh, to supply the markets of Bundelkhand. The exports consi
wheat, gram, rice, hides, *ghí*, cotton, and coarse cloth. The total le
of made roads in the District is returned at 113 miles of the second
139 of the third class. The principal road is that connecting the mi
station of Ságar (Saugor) with the town of Jabalpur (Jubbulpore).
the 40 miles of its course which lie within this District it is pa
bridged, and all the streams it crosses are fordable. The shorte
which joins Ságar with Jokái on the Mírzápur road, traversing I
for 30 miles, should become an important railway feeder. The onl
important line runs from Damoh towards Nagode *viâ* Hatta, an
plies the route for commerce with Mírzápur and the Upper Pro
Besides these roads, two tracks start from the north-east and no

of the District, along which the Banjárás drive their long trains of pack-bullocks, laden with grain for the markets of Bundelkhand.

Administration.—Damoh was first formed into a separate District under the British Government of the Central Provinces in 1861. It is administered by a European Deputy Commissioner with Assistants and *tahsíldárs*. Total revenue in 1876-77, £32,993, of which the land revenue yielded £26,680. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £11,817. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 4—magistrates, 8; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 50 miles; average distance, 25 miles. Number of police, 388 (costing £5535), being 1 policeman to about every 7·3 square miles and to 704 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 48·97, of whom 5·41 were females; the total cost of the jail was £366. In the same year the number of Government or aided schools in the District under inspection was 51, attended by 2019 pupils. Of the two municipalities, Damoh, with a municipal population of 8690, had in 1876-77 an income of £543 (of which £423 were derived from taxation, being 11d. per head), and expended £523; and Hatta, with a municipal population of 6633, had an income of £330 (of which £279 were derived from taxation, being 10d. per head), and expended £273.

Medical Aspects.—The climate may be pronounced fairly healthy. The temperature is lower than is usual in the Districts of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and the hot winds prove milder and of shorter duration than in Upper India. All the year round, the nights are cool. In the winter it generally rains, and then the weather becomes really cold, and sharp frosts sometimes occur. Rainfall in 1876-77, 68·07 inches; annual average, 56·30 inches. Average temperature in the shade at the civil station:—May, highest reading 107° F., lowest 87°; July, highest reading 94°, lowest 68°; December, highest reading 80°, lowest 52°. Cholera sometimes sweeps over the District. Small-pox carries off large numbers of children, but the spread of vaccination will doubtless diminish its ravages. Fevers prevail at the conclusion of the monsoon, but not to so great an extent as in the adjoining District of Jabalpur. The most common disease is the guinea-worm, which generally breaks out at the beginning of the rainy season. The first attack is severe, but with careful treatment the patient usually recovers in two months. It seldom, if ever, attacks Europeans. In 1876, 9390 deaths from all causes were registered, and the ratio per 1000 reached the high figure of 36·78, the mean for the previous five years being only 23·91. There were 34 cases of suicide, of which 21 were committed by women; 53 persons died from snake-bite, or were killed by wild beasts. In the same year, 5 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 11,662 patients.

Damoh.—*Tahsíl* or Revenue Subdivision in Damoh District, Central

Provinces. Lat. 23° 9′ to 24° 27′ N., long. 77° 57′ to 79° 24′ E.; pop. (1872), 163,184, residing in 695 villages or townships and 33,437 houses, on an area of 1792 square miles. Persons per square mile, 91·06.

Damoh.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Damoh District. Lat. 23° 50′ N., long. 79° 29′ 30″ E., on the high road between Ságar (Saugor) and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), and between Ságar and Allahábád *viâ* Jokái. Pop. (1876), 8189, chiefly Lodhís, Kurmís, and Bráhmans, with a few Muhammadans. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £543; incidence of taxation, 11d. per head. The porous sandstone on which the town is built does not easily retain water, and there are but few wells; thus, in spite of the fine tank called the Phutera Tál, good water is scarce. The temperature is considerably increased by radiation from the bluffs near Damoh.

Dámsang.—Tract of country, Dárjíling District, Bengal.—*See* DALINGKOT.

Dangs, The.—Tract of country, situated within the limits of the Political Agency of Khandesh, Bombay. Bounded north-west by the petty State of Warsávi in the Rewá Kánta Agency, north-east by the British Districts of Khandesh and Násik, south by the Peint State in Násik District, and west by the Bánsda State in Surat District. The Dangs consist of 16 petty States, ruled by Bhíl chieftains, and extending from 20° 22′ to 21° 5′ N. lat., and from 73° 28′ to 73° 52′ E. long. The extreme length from north to south is 52 miles, and the breadth 28 miles. Estimated area, about 1000 square miles; pop. (1872), 22,326; estimated gross revenue of all the chiefs, £1930 (chiefly derived from dues on timber).

The country is covered with dense forest, intersected in all directions by precipitous ravines and rugged mountains, the general slope being towards the west. The rainfall is heavy; and the air of the valleys, walled in on all sides by steep hill ranges, is close and hot. The water obtained from pools and wells is always full of decaying vegetable matter. From these causes the climate is singularly unhealthy. Except for a few months during the driest season of the year, no European, and only the hardiest races of natives, can remain in the Dangs. The valleys contain tracts of rich black loam, but the soil on the uplands is the poorer variety of red. None of the mineral resources have as yet been ascertained. Of vegetable products, teak and other timber trees are by far the most important. With the exceptior of a little rice and pulse, the crops are confined to the inferior varietie of mountain grains. There are no roads properly so called, but ther are 4 principal cart tracks. The inhabitants of the Dangs belon almost entirely to the wild forest tribes. Most of them are Bhíls, wh accompanied by herds of sheep and goats, move about from place place, supporting themselves in great measure on game and the natu products of the forest. Under the former Native Governments,

Bhíls were the terror of the neighbouring Districts, and on occasions the most indiscriminate vengeance was taken on them in return for their habitual depredations. After the occupation of Khandesh by the British, in 1818, anarchy was at its height. The roads were impassable, villages were plundered, and murders committed daily, the only protection the inhabitants of the plain could obtain being through regular payment of black-mail. An expedition was sent into the Dang country; but at the end of three months, less than half the force marched back to Maligáon, the others having succumbed to the malaria of the jungle. At that time, Captain (afterwards Sir James) Outram came among the Bhíls. First conciliating them with feasts and his prowess in tiger-shooting, he eventually succeeded in forming a Bhíl corps, originally based on 9 men who had accompanied him on shooting expeditions. In 1827, this Bhíl corps had reached 600 rank and file, who fought boldly for the Government and suppressed plundering. The District treasuries are now under their charge, and the chief police rests in their hands. The tribe next in importance to the Bhíls is called Konkaní. They are somewhat more settled in their habits and more inclined to agriculture, though little superior to the Bhíls in appearance. The language of both these tribes is a mixture of Hindustání, Maráthí, and Guzeráthí, in which the last predominates. Education is in a very backward state. In the whole Dangs, not more than half a dozen persons can read and write.

There are sixteen petty chiefs in the Dang country, whose States are returned (1876) as follows:—

Name of State.	Estimated Population.	Supposed Revenue.
		Rs.
Dang Pimpri,	4,025	3,106
,, Wadhwán,	150	147
,, Jhari Gárkhardi,	325	59
,, Ketak,	75	155
,, Amálá,	4,805	2,885
,, Chinchli,	675	601
,, Pimpládevi,	125	120
,, Palásbihar,	215	230
,, Auchar,	375	201
,, Derbhauti,	2,005	3,649
,, Gárvi,	4,668	5,125
,, Siobára,	225	422
,, Kirti,	903	512
,, Wásurná,	4,197	2,275
,, Dhude,	90	85
,, Surgána,	8,201	11,469
Total,	31,059	31,041 (say £3104)

Of these, fourteen are held by Bhíls, and one by a Kunbí. Four of the petty chieftains claim the title of Rájá; the others are called Naiks. They are all practically independent, though a nominal superiority is awarded to the Gárvi chief, under whose banner the rest are bound to serve in time of war. In former times the Gárvi chief was, again, in common with the other Dang chiefs, tributary to the Desmukh of Mulber, a strong fort in the Báglán Subdivision of Násik District. But the oppression exercised by the Desmukh in collecting his annual tribute of £70, gave rise to such frequent disturbances, that the British Government was induced to deduct the amount from the sums now paid to the Dang chiefs for the leases of their forests, and hand it over direct to the representative of the Desmukh.

The administration of justice, civil and criminal, in the Dangs is vested in the Collector of Khandesh as *ex officio* Political Agent; capital sentences, or those involving more than fourteen years' imprisonment, being referred for the confirmation of Government. Petty cases are settled by the Rájás and Náiks themselves, each in his own jurisdiction, the punishments inflicted being chiefly fines in money and cattle. None of the Dang chiefs possesses a *sanad* authorizing adoption, but the succession in all cases follows the rule of primogeniture. The whole area of the Dangs is leased to Government in perpetuity, but the lease may be relinquished at any time on giving six months' notice of an intention to that effect.

Dángurli.—Small chiefship on the left bank of the Wáinganga river, in Bhandára District, Central Provinces, containing only one village. Situated in lat. 21° 36′ N., and long. 80° 11′ E.; area, 1905 acres, of which two-thirds are cultivated, producing a large quantity of the castor-oil plant. The chief claims to be a Rájput.

Dankar. — Picturesque village in Kángra District, Punjab, and capital of the SPITI tract. Lat. 32° 5′ 30″ N., long. 78° 15′ 15″ E. Stands at an elevation of 12,774 feet above sea level, on a spur or bluf which juts into the main valley, ending in a precipitous cliff. Th softer parts of the hill have been denuded by the action of the weathe leaving blocks and columns of a hard conglomerate, among which th houses are curiously perched in quaint and inconvenient position Overtopping the whole rises a rude fort, belonging to Governmen while a Buddhist monastery stands on a side of the hill. The inhab ants are pure Thibetans. Dankar has formed the seat of Governm for the Spiti valley from time immemorial.

Dankaur.—Ancient town in Bulandshahr District, North-West Provinces. Situated in lat. 28° 21′ 25″ N., long. 77° 35′ 35″ E., on bank which separates the uplands from the Jumna (Jamuná) val distant from Bulandshahr 20 miles south-west. Pop. (1872), 5 comprising 4210 Hindus and 1213 Musalmáns. Founded acco

to tradition by Drona or Dona, a hero of the Mahábhárata, from whom the town derives its name. Ruins of a large fort, built by Kayam-ud-dín Khán in the reign of Akbar, amid which stands a mosque of comparatively modern construction. Masonry tank and ancient temple. Police station, post office, village school. Traffic by Makanpur *ghát* passes through Dankaur, which has no trade of its own.

Dankiá.—Mountain in the Chhola range, Sikkim, Bengal; height, 23,176 feet; situated 50 miles east-north-east of Kánchanjangá. Lat. 27° 57′ 30″ N., long. 88° 52′ 15″ E. Although the Dankiá mountain is 5000 feet lower than Kánchanjangá, it is the culminating-point of a much more extensive and elevated mass. An immense spur, with an average elevation of 18,500 feet, runs south-west from Dankiá to Kánchanjangá, forming a great watershed.

Dánta.—Tributary State within the Political Agency of Máhi Kánta, in the Province of Guzerat (Gujarát), Bombay. A wild and hilly country, with a pop. (1872) of 11,762; gross revenue, £4500, inclusive of transit dues. Tribute—£237 to the Gáekwár of Baroda; £52 to the Rájá of Edar; £50 to the Rájá of Pálanpur. Chief crops—millet, Indian corn, wheat, and sugar-cane. Marble is found and quarried in Dánta. There is 1 school, with 45 pupils. The Chief is a Hindu, and a Rájput by caste; his title is Rána. In matters of succession, the family, which has held semi-independent power since 1069 A.D., follows the rule of primogeniture, but does not hold a *sanad* authorizing adoption. Harísinjhí, the present Rána, was sixty years of age in 1877. The Amba Bhawání shrine, famous throughout India, is situated in this territory. It is visited by pilgrims of all ranks during August, September, October, and November, and costly offerings are presented to the goddess.

Dánta.—Chief town of the State of the same name, in Guzerat, Bombay; 38 miles east of Disá (Deesa), and 136 miles north of Baroda. Lat. 24° 12′ 15″ N., long. 72° 49′ 30″ E.

Dantiwára.—Village in Bastár Feudatory State, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 18° 54′ N., long. 81° 23′ 30″ E., at the confluence of the Dankání and Sankání rivers, and to the west of the Belá Dilás, a lofty range of hills. About 60 miles from Jagdalpur, and 120 from Sironcha, on the direct route between these places. Population, about 300. Famed for its temple to Danteswari or Kali, the patron goddess of the Rájás of Bastár, where human sacrifices were practised of old.

Dántun.—Chief village in the *parganá* of the same name in Midnapur District, Bengal. Seat of a subordinate judge's court; considerable trade in cloth, made of silk and cotton, manufactured in Morbhanj State.

Da-nwon.—A tidal creek in Thonkhwa District, Pegu, British Burma. Navigable by river steamers. With the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), it forms an island on which stands the village of Kywonpyathal. Lat. 16° 25′ N., long. 95° 12′ 30″ E.

Daphla (or *Duffla*) **Hills.**—A tract of country on the north-east frontier of India, occupied by an independent tribe called Daphla, akin to the Abars and the Akás. It lies north of Darrang and Lakhimpur Districts, in the Province of Assam; bounded west by the Aká Hills, and east by the Abar range. The westward boundary is formed by the Bhoroli river, the eastward boundary by the Sundri. The Daphlas are divided into two clans—the Tagin Daphlas, whose villages border on Lakhimpur; and the Paschim Daphlas, living on the Darrang frontier. According to the Assam Census Report of 1872, the total number of Daphlas in British territory was 418. The term Daphla, which is of uncertain derivation, is that applied to them by the Assamese; they call themselves Bangní, a word signifying 'man' in their own language. Their political constitution is based upon an excessive subdivision of authority. There are as many as 238 *gáms*, or village chiefs, in receipt of *posá* or commuted black-mail from the British Government, to the total annual amount of £254. In former times, the Daphlas were notorious for their raids upon the inhabitants of the plains. At the beginning of the present century, the northern valley of the Brahmaputra was entirely depopulated by the terror thus spread; and during the early years of British administration, the passes leading from the Daphla Hills were regularly blockaded by military outposts. Recently, however, the Daphlas have shown a more peaceable disposition. In return for the annual payment of *posá*, they have kept the peace along their own frontier, and a trade has sprung up between them and the Assamese. In 1872, there was an unfortunate recurrence of their old practices. A party of independent Daphlas, of the Tagin clan, suddenly attacked a colony of their own tribesmen, who had settled at Amtolá, in British territory, and carried away 44 captives to the hills. The motive of this raid was a belief that an outbreak of disease among them was introduced from the plains. During the next two years, the hill passes were blockaded by police and soldiers, but with no result. In the cold season of 1874-75, an armed expedition was marched into the hills. No serious opposition was encountered; all the captives that survived were released, and an excellent effect has been produced upon the hill tribes.

Da-pyú-khyaing.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 220 square miles, inclusive of Ma-i circle; pop. (1876), 3617, chiefly Arakanese; gross revenue (1876), £549.

Dáraganj.—Town in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 41′ N., long 81° 21′ E., on the left bank of the Ganges, on the route from Allahábád to Jaunpur. Communicating by ferry with Allahábád city, of which it forms an outlying suburb.

Dárapur.—Village in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 46′ N., long. 73° 36′ E., about a mile from the right or west bank

of the Jhelum river, just below its junction with the Bunhár torrent. The neighbouring ruins of Udainagar were identified by Burnes with those of Nicæa, built by Alexander to commemorate his victory over Porus. General Cunningham, however, with greater probability, places the site of Alexander's great battle at JALALPUR.

Dárapur.—*Táluk* and town in Coimbatore District, Madras.—*See* DHARAPURAM.

Darauti.—Village in Sháhábád District, Bengal; 5 miles north-east of Rámgarh. Contains some old remains attributed to the Suars or Sivirás. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton conjectures, from the style of this work, that the Cherús once had a temple here, and that the obelisks now left standing commemorate its destruction by the Suars.

Daray.—Revenue circle in the extreme north-west of Bhílú (Bheeloo) island, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 544, chiefly Talaings; land revenue, £402; and capitation tax, £59. In Burmese times, Daray was a separate township, including the whole western Bhílú-gywon, which was cut off from its eastern portion by the Tsaibala creek, now silted up. Daray has never been either populous or productive.

Daray-bhyú.—Creek in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Forms one of the entrances from the sea to the RWE. Its mouth, in lat. 15° 51′ 20″ N. and long. 90° 41′ 20″ E., is obstructed by sandbanks, but the rest of the river is easily navigable by river steamers.

Daray-bouk.—The name given to the northern mouth of the Salwín river from Martaban to the sea. Several centuries ago, it was the ordinary entrance for ships coming to Martaban in Tenasserim, British Burma; but for many years it has been so choked with sandbanks as to be impassable by sea-going vessels.

Darbelo.—A Government town in the Naushahro Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 1159, mainly agriculturists, the Muhammadans being of the Kalhoro and Pír tribes, the Hindus chiefly Lohános. Annual export of grain, by the Naulakhi Canal, valued at £2000.

Darbhangah.—District in Patná Division, Bengal; formed out of the great District of Tirhut on the 1st of January 1875. The geographical and general aspects of Darbhangah will be dealt with under TIRHUT DISTRICT, which was not divided until after the date when the materials for this work were collected. Tirhut continued until 1875 the largest and most populous District of Lower Bengal. Of its six Subdivisions, the three western were formed into the new District of MUZAFFARPUR at the commencement of that year. The three eastern—viz. Darbhangah, Madhubani, and Tájpur—were constituted into the District of Darbhangah; bounded on the east by Muzaffarpur District,

on the south by the Ganges and by Monghyr District, on the west by Bhágalpur, and on the north by the Nepál frontier. Lat. 26° 40′ to 25° 29′ N., long. 85° 34′ to 86° 46′ E.; area (according to Parliamentary Return for 1878), 3004 square miles; pop. (1872), 2,196,324. Principal town and District headquarters, DARBHANGAH, which is also the residence of the Rájá of Darbhangah. Cultivated area, 1,661,280 acres; 951,418 under rice. Of the gross area of Darbhangah Sub-division in 1872, viz. 2,159,170 acres, only 223,976 are left unproductive, including roads. Darbhangah suffered severely during the famines of 1866 and 1874, and the dense pressure of the population on the soil formed one of the principal difficulties in dealing with those calamities. In 1866, the suffering was greatest during July, August, and September, the price of rice ranging from 7 to 5¼ *sers* per rupee, or from 15s. 9d. to £1, 0s. 9d. per cwt. In 1874, the rates reached 15s. 8d. per cwt. For an account of the Darbhangah Ráj, see DARBHANGAH TOWN.

Darbhangah ('*Town*' and '*Ráj*').—The headquarters station and principal town of the new District of the same name; situated in lat. 26° 10′ 2″ N., long. 85° 56′ 39″ E., on the left or east bank of the Little Bághmatí river. It is the largest and most populous town in Tirhut, containing, according to the Census of 1872, 47,450 inhabitants. The gross municipal income in 1876-77 was £1788; gross expenditure, £1532; average rate of taxation per head, 8d. The *bázárs* are large, and markets are held daily. A considerable trade is carried on, and the communications by road are good in all directions. The State Railway connects the town with Bazítpur on the banks of the Ganges, a distance of 45 miles; and Bazítpur in its turn is connected by a steam ferry with Bárh, one of the stations on the main line of the East Indian Railway. The principal exports from the city are oil-seeds, saltpetre, and timber; and the imports, food grains and salt. During the year 1876-77, the registered traffic by river only was as follows:—Exports, £80,032; imports, £30,566. The value of oil-seeds exported was £49,332; of timber, £14,359; of saltpetre, £9961. The value of salt imported was £25,560.

Darbhangah has been the residence of the Mahárájás of Darbhangah since 1762. The family trace their origin to one Mahesh Thákur, who originally came from the Central Provinces in the beginning of the 16th century, and took service as a priest under the ancient Rájás of Tirhut. After Tirhut was conquered by the Muhammadans, and the race of the old princes became extinct, Mahesh Thákur is said to have proceeded to Delhi, where he obtained the grant of the Darbhangah Ráj from the Emperor Akbar. But the title of Rájá was not duly confirmed unti[l] the time of Rághu Sinh in 1700. The residence of the family was the[n] at Bhawára, near Madhubani, where the remains of an old mud fo[rt] are still pointed out, which is said to have been built by Rághu Sin[h]

A temporary settlement was concluded by the British Government with Mádhu Sinh, who succeeded to the Ráj in 1776. A long series of disputes and misunderstandings ensued. The Rájá refused to engage for the decennial settlement of 1790, alleging that grave injustice had been done him by the authorities. The estate was therefore leased out to two Muhammadan farmers. But in November 1791, the one resigned his share, and shortly afterwards the other was killed by a fall from his horse at Patná, and his heirs refused to continue the lease. Mádhu again refused the settlement. The lease was then renewed to a number of small leaseholders, from 1793 up to 1800, when it expired. Negotiations were again entered into with the Rájá, but they fell through as before, and the estate was once more let in farm. At last the property was restored to the Rájá on his consenting to pay an increase of revenue. Mádhu Sinh died in 1808. His son Chhatar Sinh, who lived till 1839, was the first who received the title of Mahárájá. On his death, the succession was disputed, but after costly litigation, his eldest son, Rúdar Sinh, was declared heir to the title. Rúdar Sinh died in 1850. His son Maheshwar died in 1860, leaving two sons, Lakshmeswar and Rameswar, the present Mahárájá, and his brother. As these were minors, the Court of Wards took charge of their possessions. Everything was in confusion; the estate was £700,000 in debt, and the revenue was only £160,000. Under the management of the Court of Wards, the property has greatly improved; the debt has been paid off, and the rental has increased by £40,000. Besides this, £547,600 had been saved prior to the famine of 1874; but nearly £300,000 was then expended in charitable relief. The estate supports entirely a first-class dispensary at Darbhangah; another at Kharakpur; an Anglo-vernacular school and 22 vernacular schools in its villages. It further contributes largely to 3 dispensaries and 27 schools. It has opened 150 miles of new road, along which about 20,000 trees have been planted. Three iron bridges have been erected over navigable rivers, and extensive irrigation works, at a cost of £70,000, have been constructed on the Kharakpur estate in Monghyr District. The wards have been educated at Benares. When the Government took charge, the family residence at Darbhangah consisted of a few low-built houses, hemmed in by hovels in the town. Many of the latter have been removed, and new buildings have been erected, surrounded by well laid out gardens of about 55 acres in extent. A new palace, with a menagerie and aviary, is now under construction (1877). The estates of the Ráj are situated in the four Districts of Tirhut, Monghyr, Purniah, and Bhágalpur. Their total rental is £202,419; the total Government revenue, £42,821.

Dardi Janbái.—One of the petty States in North Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £250; no tribute is payable.

Darien.—A maritime revenue circle in Martaban township, Amherst District, Tenasserim, British Burma. It consists of low-lying, highly-cultivated plains, liable to inundation on the west during high tides, the sea penetrating through a drainage-way cut by a villager some years ago. In 1876, the population numbered 3181; the capitation tax yielded £327, and the land revenue, £2478.

Dárjíling.—The District of Dárjíling forms the most northerly portion of the Rájsháhí-Kuch Behar Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 26° 30′ 50″ and 27° 12′ 45″ N. lat., and between 88° 1′ 30″ and 88° 56′ 35″ E. long., running up between Nepál and Bhután towards the State of Independent Sikkim. The area was returned in 1876 at 1234 square miles; and the population, according to the Census of 1872, numbers 94,712 persons. The administrative headquarters are at the station and sanitarium of DARJILING. The British frontier is demarcated on the north from Sikkim by a series of rivers and mountain torrents, on the west from Nepál by a lofty range of hills; along the east and south run the British Districts of Jalpáigurí and Purniah.

Physical Aspects.—The District naturally divides into two distinct tracts—the ridges and deep valleys of the lower Himálayas, and the *tarái* or submontane marshy strip from which the hills abruptly rise. The scenery is of a wildly magnificent character. The background is formed by a jagged line of dazzling snow, connecting the two highest peaks in the world, Everest and Kánchanjangá, each above 28,000 feet. Imposing series of parallel mountain ridges intervene, broken by almost perpendicular valleys. Up to 12,000 feet these ridges are clad with dark green foliage; on the high slopes the rhododendron predominates, lower down occur forests of pine and deodar, near the plains the valuable *sál* timber. To travellers fresh from the swamps of Bengal this picturesque region would prove yet more alluring, were it not for the mists and showers which are continually closing upon the scene. European planters are now dotting the slopes of the lower ranges with trim tea gardens. The *tarái* portion of the District is overgrown with malarious jungle, amid which the aborigines form clearings by fire, and rear crops of rice and cotton on a system of primitive nomadic husbandry.

The loftiest mountains are situated outside British territory; but within it on the western range, marching with Nepál, are several peaks above 10,000 feet in height. The station of DARJILING itself has an elevation of 7167 feet above sea level, and on the ridge of Sinchál Pahár there are barracks for a European regiment 1500 feet higher. The chief rivers are the TISTA and the MAHANANDA, with their numerou[s] affluents. The Tístá, like many of the other great rivers of Norther[n] India, rises on the farther side of the Himálayas, and bursts throug[h]

the mountain barrier before it reaches British territory. At the point where it debouches on the plains, its volume is very considerable, and it becomes at once navigable for large boats. Its tributaries include the Ránchu and Roli, on the left bank; and on the right, the Great Ranjít, Rangjo, Ráyeng, and Sivak. The Mahánanda, while passing through Dárjíling District, is a comparatively small stream, and altogether loses itself in the sand of the *tarái* for a portion of its course. Its tributaries join it below the District boundary. Two small lakes or tarns are situated amid the hills. The mineral products of the District comprise coal, iron, copper, calcareous tufa, and slate.

The History of Dárjíling presents a late chapter in the extension of British Rule. The Gurkhá war of 1815-16 first brought the Company into direct relations with this region. It was then found that the aggressive Gurkhás had appropriated from the Rájá of Sikkim the *morang* or *tarái* portion of the present District; and it was one of the articles of the peace of 1816, that this strip should be ceded to the British, who immediately gave it back again to the Sikkim chief. In 1835, under the Governor-Generalship of Lord William Bentinck, the nucleus of what was originally known as 'British Sikkim' was created by the purchase, from the Rájá of Sikkim, of the sanitarium of Dárjíling, with a portion of the surrounding hills, in consideration of an allowance of £300, afterwards increased to £600 per annum. This ceded tract is described in the Deed of Grant as 'all the land south of the Great Ranjít river, east of the Bálásan, Káhel, and Little Ranjít rivers, and west of the Rangmi and Mahánanda rivers,' containing about 138 square miles. Dárjíling soon became a favourite summer retreat for the officials of Lower Bengal and their families; it was also established as a sanitarium for invalided European soldiers. A good deal of land was taken up from the Government on building leases, but tea cultivation was not introduced till a much later date. In 1849, Dr. Hooker paid a visit to Dárjíling, and founded upon his experiences then gathered his well-known and most interesting *Himalayan Journals* (2 vols., London 1854). His visit was also productive of important political consequences. With the sanction of the British Government, and with an express permission from the Rájá of Independent Sikkim, he had crossed the frontier into that State, accompanied by Dr. Campbell, the Superintendent of Dárjíling District. There they were treacherously seized and imprisoned, by the authority of the Rájá's Díwán or Prime Minister. A military expedition was despatched to rescue the prisoners, and avenge the insult. The yearly allowance granted to the Rájá was stopped. The Sikkim *morang* or *tarái*, at the foot of the hills, was annexed; and a considerable addition was also made to the British territory that lay among the mountains. In all, about 640 square miles of land were acquired on this occasion. Finally, in 1864, the District received a further augmen-

tation by the cession of a hilly tract east of the Tístá, which had become British territory as the result of the Bhután campaign of that year. This tract covers an area of about 485 square miles, and is known as the Subdivision of Dálingkót. The relations between the British Government and the State of Sikkim, which are conducted through the Deputy Commissioner of Dárjíling, are now of a most friendly character. The allowance to the Rájá has not only been restored, but has been raised to £1200 a year; and his Darbár lends all the assistance in its power to the development of the through trade with Thibet. Dárjíling has obtained a place in the history of oriental scholarship, as the residence for years of Brian Houghton Hodgson, of the Bengal Civil Service. Mr. Hodgson, after distinguished services as Resident in Nepál, retired from active employment, and devoted himself to the study of the Sub-Himálayan races. He fixed his head-quarters at Dárjíling; and from that District emanated his remarkable series of essays and researches, which still form the basis of any systematic study of the non-Aryan peoples of India.

The popularity of Dárjíling as a sanitarium has not been fully maintained in recent years, owing to the rival attractions of Simla and other hill stations in Northern India. It is hoped, however, that the opening of the Northern Bengal State Railway, from the Ganges to the foot of the hills, will tend to counteract the disadvantages arising from its comparative inaccessibility. Its excessive humidity must always remain. The enterprise of European capital, in the form of tea cultivation and manufacture, has opened a new era of prosperity. The oldest tea garden now existing only dates back to 1856. In 1875, 121 gardens were open, with an annual production of more than 4 million pounds. More recently, the cinchona tree has been successfully introduced, so that Dárjíling now aids in saving from fevers even those who are compelled to remain on the plains.

People.—The Census of 1872, which is not considered entirely accurate either for the *tarái* Subdivision or for the tract to the east of the Tístá, disclosed a total population of 94,712 persons, residing in 18,864 houses. There are no *mauzás* or villages in the Hills Subdivision; for the *tarái* only 19 are returned. The average number of persons per square mile is 77, varying from 49 in the Hills to 175 in the *tarái;* of houses per square mile, 15, similarly varying from 8 to 41; of persons per house, 5, varying from 6 to 4·3. Classified according to sex, there are 53,057 males and 41,655 females; proportion of males, 56 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under twelve years—16,472 males and 13,782 females; total, 30,254, or 32 per cent. of the total population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is returned at 29,877, as against 6708 male adult non-agri-

culturists. The ethnical division of the people shows:—419 Europeans; 1 American; 32 Eurasians; 39,869 aborigines, including Nepálís; 25,029 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 23,114 Hindus, subdivided according to caste; 6248 Muhammadans. The great bulk of the population consists of aboriginal or semi-aboriginal tribes, among whom the Nepálís and the Rájbansí Kochs are the most numerous. The Lepchás, who are considered the primitive inhabitants of Sikkim, number only 3952, and the race is said to be declining. The Nepálís, including the Murmís, make up a total of 32,338, divided among no less than 42 sub-tribes. The Rájbansí Kochs number 23,124; their cognates, the Dhimáls and Mechs, together amount to 1766. Sharpa Bhutiás are returned at 401, but to this ought to be added 3433 Buddhists, in order to give the total Bhutiá population. There are 1648 Uráons, immigrants attracted by the tea gardens. Of the Hindus proper, the two superior castes of Bráhman (numbering 1002) and Rájput (8972) are the most numerously represented. It is estimated that the population of Dárjíling has doubled within the past twenty-five years. The Nepálís are coming across the frontier in large numbers, and are eagerly welcomed by the tea-planters as their most valuable labourers; while Bengálís from the plains are gradually extending over the *tarái*. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 69,831, or 73·7 per cent.; Muhammadans, 6248, or 6·6 per cent.; Christians, 556, or ·6 per cent., of whom 104 are native converts; ascertained Buddhists, 1368, or 1·5 per cent.; 'others,' including many Buddhists, 16,709, or 17·6 per cent. The Bráhma Samáj is represented by a few Bengálí Government clerks at Dárjíling Station, who have no regular place of meeting.

The population may be divided into those connected with the tea industry, and the aboriginal agriculturists. There are no towns. DARJILING station itself has a permanent population of only 3157, but to this number must be added the temporary visitors during the summer months. The only other village of any note is KARSIANG (Kurseong), situated in the lower hills, 20 miles to the south.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the one food-crop grown in the *tarái* portion of the District; but among the hills, Indian corn, millets, (*maruá*, etc.), wheat, potatoes, and cardamoms are also grown, wherever practicable. Subordinate crops in the plains are cotton, jute, pulses, oil-seeds, and sugar-cane. As usual throughout Bengal, the rice crop is divided into two harvests, the *áman* or *haimantik*, reaped in winter, and the *áus* or *bhadaí*, reaped in the Hindu month of Bhádra (August or September). Rice cultivation is rapidly extending through the *tarái*, although somewhat retarded by the requirements of the Forest Department. Bengalí and Nepálí cultivators use the plough; but the Mechs and other aboriginal people still adhere to that nomadic method of agri-

culture known as *júm*, which consists in burning down a fresh patch of jungle land each successive year. They use the *dáo* or hill knife for all rustic operations. Manure is not commonly applied anywhere; but throughout the *tarái*, and in the hills wherever natural facilities are afforded, irrigation is industriously practised by the cultivators of all classes. In the *tarái*, land is measured by the *hál*, which is the area that can be tilled by a plough and one yoke of oxen. Converted into English measurement, the rent paid per acre varies from 3s. to 6s.; and the produce is about 13 cwts., worth about £1, 10s. In the hills no system of land measurement is known, but it has been estimated that the amount and value of the out-turn is approximately the same as in the *tarái*. No rent is there paid for the land, but a house-tax is levied by the proprietors, which averages about 10s. per house.

The land tenures of Dárjíling are of a very complicated character, and vary in different parts of the District. A considerable portion of the area is still held direct by Government, either as forest reserves, which altogether cover about 700 square miles, or as unallotted cultivated plots. In the hill tract the tenures divide themselves into two chief classes—(1) Freehold grants; and (2) Lease-holds for terms of years—both of which are largely held by tea-planters. In the *tarái*, the greater portion of the soil was settled with the actual cultivators or *jótdárs*, for a term of ten years from 1867, according to the method adopted in the neighbouring District of Jalpáiguri. In the tract annexed from Bhután, no Land Settlement has yet (1877) been introduced, but a poll tax is collected by the agency of the village head-men.

The ordinary rates of wages are said to have somewhat risen of late years. In 1871, a coolie or agricultural day-labourer in the *tarái* received 4d. a day, together with his food; on the tea plantations the wages paid to men or women varied from 10s. to 14s. a month. Skilled artisans received as much as from £1 to £1, 16s. a month. In the same year, the price of common rice in the *tarái* was 3s. 5d. per cwt.; and in the hills, 6s. 1d. per cwt. During the year of dearth (1866), in both tracts, the price rose to 13s. 8d. per cwt.

Dárjíling is not liable to either of the calamities of flood or drought. In the event of local scarcity from any cause, the hill people could always save themselves from starvation by migrating to other localities; but in the *tarái*, previous to the construction of the railway, the inhabitants were in some danger of isolation. If the price of rice were to rise rapidly in January, after the gathering of the *áman* or low-land rice crop, that should be regarded as a sign of approaching scarcity.

Manufactures, etc.—Coarse cotton cloth is woven by all the aboriginal tribes, usually by the women. The staple industry of Dárjíling is the cultivation and manufacture of tea, conducted under European supervision and by European capital. The first regular tea garden wa

opened in 1856; and after the natural mistakes of the few early years, the business has continued to prosper with accelerating rapidity. In 1875, there were altogether 121 gardens open, with an area under cultivation of 22,162 acres, and an out-turn of 4,600,758 lbs. This last figure shows an augmentation of nearly 20 per cent. on the previous year, but it is asserted that the quality has not kept pace with the increase in quantity. The number of Europeans employed was 139; of natives, 23,938, or rather more than one to every acre. Of the total number of labourers, 20,161 were Nepálís, and only 245 had come under contract from the plains of Bengal. In 1874, the average yield from an acre of mature plant was about 325 lbs., as against 256 lbs. two years previous. Within the past ten years the total acreage under tea has more than doubled, and the out-turn has multiplied itself tenfold. The cultivation of cinchona was commenced by Government in 1862, and the experiment has now established its success. In 1875, the sum of £5217 was expended on the plantations; the yield of dry bark was 211,931 lbs., which produced 1989 lbs. of quinine, valued at £3182. This was the first year when the young trees fairly came into bearing. The experimental cultivation of ipecacuanha has also been attempted, and promises well. In 1876, a public botanical garden was established at Rangárun.

The local trade of Dárjiling is entirely confined to the wants of the European residents, and of the tea plantations. Great attention has recently been directed to the development of through trade with Thibet *viâ* Sikkim. Registration stations have been established at Pheydung and Ranjit, within the British frontier. In the year 1876-77, the total imports from Sikkim were valued at £80,265, almost exclusively consisting of timber; the exports from Dárjiling were valued at only £14,164, including indigo (£6600), cattle (£2322), brass and copper (£1452). A brisk trade is also carried on with Nepál. In 1876-77, the chief imports from Nepál were 6471 head of cattle, 23,494 sheep and goats, and 97,095 animals not particularized; the exports included European piece-goods (£3255), native piece-goods (£753), and salt (572 *maunds*). The traffic with Bhután does not exceed £600 each way.

The mineral wealth of Dárjíling was carefully investigated in 1873 by Mr. Mallet of the Geological Survey. He was of opinion that the coal measures, which are easily exposed, but are of a peculiar friable character, might possibly be used remuneratively on the Northern Bengal Railway. Their chemical analysis is good, especially for the formation of artificial fuel, but there would be not a little difficulty in delivering the coal on the plains. Both iron and copper are worked in several places by the Nepálís, but the character and accessibility of the mines is not such as to attract European capital. Lime can be procured in

abundance from dolomite, tertiary limestone, and calcareous tufa. The last mentioned is now largely burned in kilns.

The Northern Bengal State Railway at present (1877) stops about 54 miles short of the hills. Its continuation to Adalpur would be of great benefit to the tea industry. In 1871, the total length of roads within the District was returned at 427 miles. An excellent suspension bridge has recently been constructed on the highway to Thibet.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the total revenue of Dárjíling District amounted to £18,797, towards which the land tax contributed £6001, or just one-third; the expenditure was £23,869, or £5072 more than the revenue. Under the head of land revenue is included the house and bullock tax paid in a certain portion of the hills, and also the poll tax levied in the tract east of the Tístá. In 1870, there was one covenanted officer stationed in the District, and 3 magisterial and 3 civil and revenue courts open. Dárjíling is divided into three *thánás*, or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force consisted of 213 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £4994. These figures give 1 policeman to 5·79 square miles of area, or to every 445 persons in the population; the cost averaged £4, 1s. per square mile, and 1s. 1d. per head of population. In addition, there were 5 village watchmen, maintained at an estimated cost of £24. In the same year, the number of persons in Dárjíling District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 327, being 1 person to every 289 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains one jail, which is necessarily a very expensive one on account of the small number of prisoners confined. In 1872, the daily average number of prisoners was 52, of whom one was a female; the labouring convicts averaged 47. These figures show 1 prisoner to every 1837 of the District population. The total cost amounted to £695, or £13, 7s. 4½d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net loss of £77, 18s. The death-rate was 38 per thousand.

Education has considerably advanced in recent years, despite the difficulties caused by an aboriginal population speaking various strange tongues, and dwelling in widely-scattered huts among the mountains. Up to 1860 there was only 1 school in the District—the Government English School, attended by 33 pupils. By 1872, the number of schools had risen to 29, with 723 pupils; the total expenditure was £1735, towards which Government contributed £667. In 1875, the schools further increased to 46 and the pupils to 994, showing 1 school to every 27·6 square miles, and 11 pupils to every thousand of the population. The principal educational institution is the St. Paul's School, established at Calcutta in 1845 for the sons of Europeans and East Indians, and removed to Dárjíling in 1864. In 1872, it was

attended by 47 pupils, and received a Government grant of £261, as against £637 derived from fees.

The District is divided into two Administrative Subdivisions, but not into *parganás* or fiscal divisions. In 1876, there were 3 civil judges and 5 stipendiary magistrates. What is known as the Dárjíling Municipality, consists of the tract originally acquired in 1835 from the Rájá of Sikkim. The area is 138 square miles; and the population, according to a special Census taken in 1869, amounts to 22,607. The municipality has to provide funds for conservancy and police, and to maintain 120 miles of roadway. In 1870, the income was returned at £6640, which, however, includes a separate fund distinguished as 'Improvement Fund;' the municipal receipts proper were only about £2000. The expenditure is about £4000 a year. Municipal income (1876-77), £3377.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Dárjíling is marked by excessive humidity. According to Dr. Hooker, 'Sikkim is the dampest region in the whole Himálayas. . . . Throughout the greater part of the year, the prevailing wind is from the south-east, and comes laden with moisture from the Bay of Bengal.' The few hours between sunrise and 9 A.M. form the only period of the day entirely free from clouds, mist, or rain. The average annual rainfall is returned at 129 inches. The average mean atmospheric pressure over a period of five years is 23·320. During 1872, the highest maximum temperature recorded by day was 76°, in the month of September; the lowest minimum by night was 24°, in both January and February.

The District is not unhealthy, the hills being almost free from endemic disease except goitre. In the *tarái* and the lower valleys malarious fevers occur. Cholera occasionally visits the station, but small-pox has disappeared before the introduction of vaccination. The vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate during 1875 of 14·13 per thousand in the rural area, and 43·07 in the urban area. During 1872, the charitable dispensary at Dárjíling station was attended by 88 in-door, and 2433 out-door patients; the total income was £398, towards which Government contributed £247. Before the close of that year a second dispensary was opened at Karsiáng.

Dárjíling.—Sadr or Headquarters Subdivision of Dárjíling District, Bengal. Situated between 26° 46′ 30″ and 27° 12′ 45″ N. lat., and between 88° 1′ 30″ and 88° 33′ 30″ E. long. Area, 960 square miles; houses, 7753. Pop. (1872), 46,727, of whom 29,129, or 62·3 per cent., were Hindus; 1027, or 2·2 per cent., Muhammadans; 1368, or 2·9 per cent., Buddhists; 544, or 1·2 per cent., Christians; 'others,' 14,659, or 31·4 per cent. of total population. Proportion of males in Subdivisional population, 58·6 per cent.; average density of population, 49 per square mile; average number of houses per square mile, 8—

of persons per house, 6. Dárjíling Subdivision consists of the police circles (*thánás*) of Dárjíling and Karsiáng. Police force (1870-71), 187. The separate cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £5791, 2s. in 1870-71.

Dárjíling.—Town and administrative headquarters of District of the same name, situated in the lower Himálayas. Lat. 27° 2′ 48″ N., long. 88° 18′ 36″ E. The station occupies a narrow ridge, which divides into two spurs, descending steeply to the bed of the Great Ranjít, up whose course the eye is carried to the base of the great snowy mountains. The ridge is very narrow at the top. The valleys on either side are at least 6000 feet deep, forest clad to the bottom, with very few level spots, but no absolute precipice. From the flanks of these valleys innumerable little spurs project, occupied by native clearings. The ridge varies in height from 6500 to 7500 feet above sea level. Dárjíling was acquired by the English Government in 1835 as a sanitarium, a tract of country 138 square miles in extent being ceded by the Rájá of Sikkim, in return for an allowance of £300 per annum, afterwards raised to £600. The station rapidly increased, and soon became a favourite summer retreat for the officials of Lower Bengal and their families. The Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal ordinarily spends some months of every year in Dárjíling, which is now brought within easy journey of Calcutta, by the Northern Bengal State Railway. A military dépôt, consisting of barracks for about 150 men, stands on a hill some 500 feet above the station, and is occupied by European invalids during the hot months. Some private dwelling-houses in the same locality have been adapted for the accommodation of a battery of artillery. The situation, although very bleak, is a healthy one. The population of the town fluctuates according to the season, but the population was returned by the Census of 1872 at 3157. The area of the municipality coincides with that of the tract originally ceded by the Sikkim Rájá, and comprises about 138 square miles, with a population in 1869 of 22,607, residing in 2223 houses. Municipal income (1876-77), £3377; rate of taxation, 2s. 3⅞d. per head of population.

Darkuti.—One of the petty Punjab Hill States under the Government of the Punjab. The Ráná of Darkuti, Rám Sinh, is a Rájput. When the Gurkhás were driven out of the hills, the British Government confirmed the chief in possession of this State, owing to the smallness of which no tribute is taken. The area is 5 square miles; lat. (centre), 31° 7′ 0″ N., long. 77″ 38′ 30″ E.; the population in 1875 was estimated at 700, and the revenue at £60.

Darmapatam.—River in Malabar District, Madras, falling into the sea 3 miles north of Tellicherri. DARMAPATAM town is situated on an island in this river.

Darmapatam (*Darmafattan*; the *Dehfattan* of Ibn Batuta an

the *Darmaftan* of the Tohfat-al-Majahidin).—An island town in the Kotayam *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras, lying in the river of the same name, in lat. 11° 46′ N., long. 75° 30′ E. Area, 6 square miles; houses, 751; pop. (1871), 4736. Darmapatam formerly belonged to the kingdom of Kalastri, but was ceded in 1734 to the Company. In 1788, it was taken by the Cherakal Rájá, but recovered in 1789.

Daro.—A Government town in the Sháhbandar Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 1012, mainly agricultural: being Muhammadans, 762; Hindus, 250. The Pinyári river is here crossed by a masonry bridge of six spans, each 25 feet wide.

Darrang.—A District forming a portion of the upper valley of the Brahmaputra, in the Province of Assam. It lies between 26° 12′ 30″ and 27° 2′ 30″ N. lat., and between 91° 45′ and 93° 50′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Bhutiá, Daphla, and Aka Hills; on the east by the Marámarnai river, separating it from Lakhimpur District; on the south by the Brahmaputra; and on the west by Kamrup District. According to the recent revenue survey, which closed operations in 1876, the area is 3413·26 square miles; and the Census of 1872 returned the population at 236,009 persons. The administrative headquarters are at the town of TEZPUR, situated near the confluence of the Bhairabí with the Brahmaputra.

Physical Aspects.—The District consists of a narrow strip of land, shut in between the lower ranges of the Himálayas and the Brahmaputra. Its total length is 126 miles from east to west, with an average width of about 25 miles. Numerous rivers and streams cross it, flowing southwards from the hills; and the general level is broken by a range of low hills, from 200 to 500 feet high, which sweep outwards in a crescent shape from the Bhairabí to the Brahmaputra. The population is sparse, and the area under cultivation is still very limited. Extensive tracts are overgrown with dense reed and cane jungle, characteristic of the Brahmaputra valley, amid which occur rare patches of rice cultivation. Virgin forests cover a large portion of the region which lies under the northern hills. Forest reserves, from which timber-cutting and *júm* cultivation are carefully excluded, have recently been declared by the Government over an aggregate area of about 240 square miles. In 1874-75, the total amount of revenue realized from the direct sale of timber, and from royalties on the sale of timber, amounted to £152. Wild animals of all kinds abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, buffaloes, bison, and tigers. In 1873, it was found necessary to raise the reward for tiger-killing from 10s. to £2, 10s. per head; and in the following year £172 was paid on this account. Wild elephants occasionally do considerable damage to the crops. The right of capturing these animals has recently been placed under restrictions, and is now leased out for about £150 a year. Gold-washing is carried on

in several of the hill streams, especially in the Bhairabí. Limestone of an inferior quality is found in the west of the District; and travertine, containing as much as 90 per cent. of lime, has been discovered just beyond the British frontier. Coal, also, is known to exist outside the boundary of the District.

The great river of the District is the BRAHMAPUTRA, which forms the continuous southern boundary, and is navigable for steamers all the year through. Among its tributaries, the five following are navigable for large native boats:—The Bhairabi, Ghiládári, Jiá Dhansiri (Dhaneswari), Nonái, and Bar Nadi. These all rise in the mountains beyond the frontier, and flow nearly due south into the Brahmaputra. There are about 26 minor streams, which only become practicable for small boats during the rains. Some of the rivers, immediately after leaving the hills, sink beneath the sandy soil, and reappear several miles lower down. There are no lakes or artificial water-courses in the District. Two embankments have been made for purposes of cultivation, to restrain the flood-waters of the Brahmaputra and Bar Nadi; and the old roads of the Aham Rájás, known as Ráj Alís, usually run along raised earthen banks.

History.—Darrang District possesses no history apart from Assam generally. Besides sharing in all the vicissitudes of the Province, it has experienced special troubles of its own, owing to the proximity of the wild Bhutiá and Daphla tribes. Archæological evidence and local tradition attest the existence of Hindu civilisation high up the Brahmaputra valley in very early times. The hills encircling the town of Tezpur are still covered with ruins, hidden among the jungle, which reveal the traces of temples and palaces such as could only have been erected by a powerful dynasty. The building materials used were gigantic blocks of granite, which appear to have been supplied by the immediate neighbourhood. These blocks were carefully hewn to form altars, columns, and porticoes, and many of them are profusely ornamented with carvings in basso-relievo, among which the emblems of Siva are conspicuous. It is conjectured, from the appearance of the ruins, that these buildings must have been overthrown by the hand of some invader; and local tradition points to Kálá Pahár, the General of Suláimán, King of Bengal, as the author of the sacrilege. Another legend is preserved in the Hindu poem of the Prem Ságar, which relates the battles between Bán Rájá and the god Krishna. Bá Rájá's name is associated with many of the ruins near Tezpur. H was a demi-god, sixth in descent from Brahma, and was the first introduce the worship of Siva into Assam. But at Tezpur he was ov taken by Krishna and his invading legions, and finally slain after battle in which the elements fought in vain on his side. After downfall of the early Hindu kingdom, however that may have b

brought about, Darrang, like the rest of Assam, relapsed into primitive barbarism. The next dynasty which appears in history is that of the Ahams, a wild tribe, of Shan origin, from the Burmese Hills, who first entered the valley of the Brahmaputra about the 13th century, and very gradually advanced downwards. The Ahams organized their conquered territory with minute precision, and held their own until the advent of the British. Though they have given their name to the Province, it is surprising to find how small are their present numbers, according to the Census Report of 1872. In Darrang they number only 3490 in all. The Kolitás, however, who served as their priests until the reintroduction of Bráhmanism, are returned at 16,998.

But the Ahams, though undisputed masters of the valley, never extended their sway far from the river banks. In the present administration of Darrang District is still to be traced a curious relic of fluctuating jurisdiction. A tract of country extending along the foot of the northern hill ranges is said to have been ceded by the Aham Rájá to the Bhutiás for a period of eight months in each year, in order to afford them the means of cultivating rice and other necessaries, which they could not raise on their own bleak mountains. In consideration of this grant, the Bhutiás were to pay an annual tribute to the Aham Rájá of articles produced and manufactured in the mountains; while the latter was to retain his jurisdiction over the tract for the remaining four months of the year, from about the middle of June to the middle of October. This arrangement was continued during the few first years after the British conquest of Assam. But in 1840, the claims of the Bhutiá chiefs were commuted for a money payment of £500 a year, which was calculated as the equivalent of the average emoluments they derived from the land. The revenue at present derived by the British Government from the 'debateable' tract amounts to £5183.

The Bhutiás here referred to are commonly known as the Towang Bhutiás, and are entirely independent of the State of Bhután. They carry on a considerable trade direct with Thibet, and have uniformly manifested a quiet and friendly attitude. Next to the Bhutiás on the east, come the Akás or Hrusso, a small tribe, who used formerly to commit frequent raids on British territory. They now receive *posá* or black-mail to the amount of £67 a year. Farther east, again, are the Daphlas, whose native mountains extend along the neighbouring District of Lakhimpur. The Daphlas are a tribe of whom little was known prior to the recent frontier expedition, which was caused by their wanton outrages on British subjects. In the year 1872, the village of Amtolá, occupied by Daphla settlers, was attacked by a strong party of hill Daphlas, and 44 persons were carried off to the mountains. It was ascertained that this raid had no political significance. The object was merely to seize a number of slaves as an equivalent for certain of their own people who

had died of disease, said to have been introduced from the plains. The Daphla Hills were forthwith blockaded by a strong force of police, stationed in blockhouses at all the passes. The police were subsequently replaced by military; but this method of pressure was found ineffectual. Accordingly, in the cold season of 1874-75, an armed force entered the hills, and, without encountering any opposition, achieved the release of all the surviving captives.

People.—In 1840, the population of Darrang was estimated at about 80,000. The only trustworthy figures are those of the Census of 1871-72. The enumeration was prolonged through an entire month, and doubtless there are some small inaccuracies. The results disclosed a total of 236,009 persons, dwelling in 53,558 houses and in 137 *mauzás* or clusters of villages. The area of the District was taken at 3413 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 69; *mauzás* per square mile, ·04; houses per square mile, 13. The average number of persons per *mauzá* is 1723; of persons per house, 5·4. Classified according to sex, there are 122,837 males and 113,172 females; proportion of males, 52·03 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under twelve years—40,067 males and 37,912 females; total, 77,979, or 33·1 per cent. of the total population. The ethnical division of the people shows—47 Europeans, 6 Americans, 1 Australasian, 4 Eurasians, 44 Bhutiás, 87 Nepális, 76,094 aborigines, 68,701 semi-Hinduized aborigines, 76,492 Hindus subdivided according to caste, 673 Hindus not recognising caste, 13,859 Muhammadans, 1 Burmese. In Darrang, as in the rest of the upper valley of the Brahmaputra, the great majority of the population are of aboriginal descent. The aborigines of the Census Report are mainly composed of Cácháris, who number 62,214 out of the total of 76,094; next come the cognate Rábhás, with 10,302. The Daphlas within the District boundaries are 134 in number. There are 58 Uráons and 51 Santáls, immigrants from Chutiá Nágpur, employed on the tea gardens. Among the semi-Hinduized aborigines are included the Kochs (46,788), the Doms (8023), and the Ahams (3490). Of Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 5783, the Rájputs only 75, the Káyasths 1056. The trading castes of Agárwálá, Kshattriya, Márwárí, Oswál, and Sráwak, who are all immigrants from the north-west, and of whom many are Jains by religion, number collectively 190. By far the most numerous caste is the Kolitá (16,998), the ancient priesthood of Assam, who are now admitted to Hinduism as pure Súdras; the weaving castes are also strongly represented, with an aggregate of 18,550 members. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 221,389, or 93·8 per cent.; Musalmáns, 13,859, or 5·9 per cent. The remainder is made up of 397 Buddhists; 256 Christians, including 198 native converts

and 108 'others.' The Bráhma Samáj has a meeting-house at Tezpur town, established in 1872; but the members entirely consist of immigrant Bengalis, mostly engaged in Government service. Jain traders are settled at Tezpur town and at Nalbári. The native Christians for the most part belong to the Cáchári tribe, among whom is established a mission of the Church of England. A masonry church has been built, and £180 is annually allowed by the Government for mission schools. The Musalmáns are described as a quiet class, without either fanaticism or the proselytizing spirit.

As throughout the rest of Assam, the entire population is absolutely rural. The largest place in the District is TEZPUR town, with only 2139 inhabitants; next comes the Subdivisional station of MANGALDAI, with 585. Other places of some importance as trading centres, or as containing the residences of wealthy men, are Biswanáth, Hawála Mohanpur, Nalbári, and Kuruágáon. The numerous ruins scattered over the hills in the neighbourhood of Tezpur, have already been referred to in the historical section of this article.

Agriculture.—The one staple harvest of the District is rice, grown in two crops. The *sálí* crop, corresponding to the *áman* of Bengal, sown on low lands and reaped in the winter, furnishes much the largest proportion of the food supply. The *áus* crop is sown broadcast on high lands, and reaped in the early summer, when the field is again available for a second or cold weather crop of oil-seeds or pulses. Agricultural statistics, which are more trustworthy in Assam than in Bengal, show that the area under rice greatly increased between 1850 and 1866, but has since steadily diminished. For 1874-75, the total cultivated area is returned at 198,254 acres, thus divided:—Rice, 182,172 acres; mustard, 3644; sugar-cane, 1126; cotton, 850; *múg*, 955; tobacco, 252; *kalái*, 1828; *til*, 116; jute, 184; tea, 7127. The aggregate out-turn of rice, oil-seeds and pulses, is estimated at nearly 3 million cwts., with a value of £400,000. The land is divided into three classes, paying rent to Government at the following rates, which have remained fixed since 1868:—*Bastí*, or homestead land, on which vegetables, etc. are grown, 6s. an acre; *rupit*, or moist lands, suited for *sálí* rice, 3s. 9d. an acre; *pharinghatí*, for *áus* rice and second crops, 3s. an acre. The out-turn from an acre, whether of *rupit* or *pharinghatí* land, is estimated at 16½ cwts., valued at about £2, 5s. Manure is nowhere commonly used. Irrigation is only practised in the tract under the hills inhabited by the Cácháris, who are very industrious in leading the streams through artificial channels over their rice-fields, and frequently combine with one another to effect this operation on a large scale. *Rupit* lands are cultivated continuously with the *sálí* rice crop; but *pharinghatí*, which bear two crops in the year, are occasionally allowed to lie fallow. There is abundance of cultivable waste in all parts of the District; but

the heavy grass jungle and forest with which it is now overgrown would be very expensive to clear.

The rate of wages and the price of food grains have both risen about threefold within the last twenty years. In 1870, an ordinary labourer received from 4½d. to 6d. a day. Agricultural labourers are paid in kind, and frequently live in the houses of their employers. But labour of all kinds is extremely scarce. The inhabitants have a passion for cultivating their own plots of land, and a short spell of work on a tea garden furnishes them with the capital necessary to purchase a pair of bullocks and the few implements required. In 1870, common rice was selling at 3s. 5d. a cwt.; fine rice, which is usually imported from Bengal, at 6s. 10d. a cwt. The highest prices known to have been reached were in the season of 1857-58, when common rice fetched more than £1 a cwt.

Darrang is not exposed to either of the natural calamities of flood or drought, and blight has never been known to have seriously injured the crops. In the event of excessive inundations, compensation would be found in the increased fertility of the uplands; and similarly, if the rainfall were ever to prove deficient, the drying up of the swamps would offer new fields to cultivation. The single famine recorded in Darrang was caused, not by the failure of the crops, but by the invasion of the Burmese in the early years of the present century.

Manufactures, etc.—The only indigenous manufacture in Darrang is that of silk-weaving. The silk is of two kinds, known as *eriá* and *mugá*. The former is the produce of the worm Phalæna cynthia, which is reared almost entirely in-doors, and fed on the leaves of the Ricinus communis or castor-oil plant. The *mugá* worm, or Phalæna saturnia, is fed on certain forest trees in the open air, but also requires careful tending. The entire manufacture is carried on without capital or division of labour. Each individual spins, weaves, and dyes his own web; yet some of the fabrics attain a high standard of excellence, and are bought up for export by the Márwárí traders. There are minor industries in certain villages of brass-work and pottery. The braziers, called Mariás, form a community by themselves.

The cultivation and manufacture of tea is chiefly carried on by means of European capital and under European supervision. In 1874-75, there were altogether 94 tea gardens in Darrang District, managed by 14 European assistants and 138 native officials. The total area under cultivation was 3856 acres, the out-turn amounting to 1,008,077 lbs. The average number of labourers employed was 4990, of whom 257[illegible] were imported under contract from Bengal.

The external commerce of the District is conducted by means of th[e] Brahmaputra, which is navigable by steamers all the year through. Th[e] local trade is in the hands of Márwárí immigrants from the north-wes[t]

The principal exports are tea, oil-seeds, silk, cloth, and miscellaneous forest produce, brought in by the hill tribes. The imports consist of cotton and woollen cloth, salt, fine rice, dried fruits, spices, etc. The permanent centres of trade are TEZPUR, MANGALDAI, and BISWANATH. Weekly markets are held in the neighbourhood of the tea gardens. In recent years, annual trading fairs have been instituted in certain villages at the foot of the northern hills, in order to encourage intercourse with the Bhutiás. The most important of these is at Udalguri, on the north-west frontier. The principal articles brought for sale by the Bhutiás are—ponies, blankets, salt, wax, gold, lac, and musk; in return for which they carry away rice, cotton and silk cloth of native manufacture, and brass-ware. This gathering lasts for three or four weeks. In 1875, the total value of the articles interchanged was valued at £76,114, the balance of trade being greatly in favour of the Bhutiás.

Apart from the main highway of the Brahmaputra, means of communication are somewhat defective. Second in importance is the Assam Trunk Road, which runs through the entire length of the District for a distance of 158 miles. There are several minor roads crossing north and south, and an elephant path, or *háthi potí*, skirts continuously the base of the Bhután Hills. The rivers are generally crossed by ferries. The total length of roads in the District is returned at 542 miles.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Darrang District amounted to £66,654, towards which the land contributed £36,503, and opium £19,158; the expenditure was £26,461, of which £9983 was for the commission of the *mauzádárs* or fiscal officials. The land revenue has more than doubled within the past twenty years, having amounted in 1850 to only £15,668. In 1870-71, there were 2 European covenanted officers stationed in the District, and 6 magisterial and 10 civil and revenue courts open. For police purposes the District is divided into 6 *tháncás* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 249 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £4419. These figures show 1 policeman to every 13·70 square miles of the area, or to every 948 of the population, and an average cost of £1, 6s. per square mile, or 4½d. per head of population. There is no municipal police in Darrang, and the *chaukídárs* or village watch of Bengal are not found anywhere in Assam proper. In the same year, the total number of persons in Darrang District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 697, being 1 person to every 338 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains 1 jail and 1 Subdivisional lock-up. In 1872, the daily average number of prisoners was 165, of whom two were females; the labouring convicts numbered 161. These figures show 1 person in jail to every 1430 of the population. The

total cost amounted to £1049, or £6, 6s. 2d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £104, or £2, 6s. 5d. per manufacturing prisoner. The death-rate was 30·3 per thousand.

Education does not make such progress in Darrang as in the wealthy Districts of Bengal, but yet some improvement has been exhibited in recent years. In 1856, the total number of schools was 20, attended by 613 pupils. The figures of 1870 show a positive decrease; but by 1872, when Sir G. Campbell's reforms had come into operation, the schools had increased to 66, and the pupils to 2788. These figures show 1 school to every 52 square miles, and 12 pupils to every thousand of the population. In the same year, the total expenditure was £897, towards which Government contributed £693. Since 1871, there has been no Government higher school, but there are 1 aided and 2 unaided schools of this class, with an aggregate of 176 pupils. The normal school at Tezpur is under the management of the English Church Mission.

The District is divided into 2 administrative Subdivisions, and into 6 *thánás* or police circles. There are 9 *mahdls* or fiscal divisions, corresponding to the *parganás* of Bengal, containing an aggregate of 111 *mauzás* or revenue estates. There is no municipality in the District.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Darrang does not differ from that common to the whole of the Assam valley. The north-east monsoon, which marks the opening of the cold season, sets in about the beginning of November, and lasts till the end of April. It is frequently interrupted in March by heavy winds from the south-west, but the south-west monsoon proper lasts from May to October. The annual rainfall over a period of twelve years averages 76·82 inches.

The prevalent diseases are intermittent fevers—generally quotidian or irregular—dysentery and diarrhœa, goitre, epilepsy. Dyspepsia is said to be common among the numerous class of opium-eaters. Small-pox breaks out almost every year, in consequence of the practice of inoculation. In recent years, cholera has repeatedly manifested itself with extreme epidemic violence, and with most fatal results. In 1874, out of a total of 8061 deaths reported throughout the District, as many as 2997 were assigned to cholera, showing a mortality from this cause alone of 12·6 per thousand. The total mortality for that year was at the rate of 34·1 per thousand, being the highest death-rate recorded in any of the Assam Districts, and more than double the rate in Darrang for the previous year. The vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate in 1874 of 58·1 per thousand in the rural area, and 46 per thousand in the urban area, which is conterminous with the town of Tezpur. Since 1870, a contagious disorder has been raging among the cattle of Darrang, which is thought to have been introduced by imported buffaloes from Bengal. The chief symptoms are loss of appetite, exc

sive thirst, high temperature of the body, and watery evacuation. The proportion of deaths among the animals attacked is very high.

Darrangirí.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam; situated in lat. 25° 46′ N., long. 90° 56′ E., on the Someswari river, near which a fine out-crop of coal strata is to be seen.

Darsi.—*Táluk* in Nellore (Nellúru) District, Madras, forming one of the four divisions of the Venkatagiri estate. Area, 588 square miles; houses, 12,554; pop. (1871), 73,139, viz. 69,910 Hindus, 3018 Muhammadans, and 211 Christians (all native Roman Catholics). Of the Hindus, 43,641 are Vaishnavs, 23,964 Sivaites, and 2305 Lingáyats; of the Muhammadans, 2960 are Sunnis and 28 Shiás. Chief place, DARSI.

Darsi (*Dárische*).—Town in the Darsi *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras; situated in lat. 15° 48′ N., long. 79° 44′ E., 30 miles north-west of Ongole. Pop. (1871), 1831. As the headquarters of the *táluk*, Darsi possesses the usual native subordinate establishments, a police station, and a post office.

Darwa.—Town and headquarters of a *tahsíl*, Wún District, Berar. Lat. 20° 18′ 30″ N., long. 77° 49′ 0″ E. Contains 613 houses, a police station, post office, and school. An ancient town, once the seat of one of the Bhonslá chiefs.

Darwání.—Village in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 53′ 15″ N., long. 88° 55′ 15″ E. Seat of an annual fair of considerable importance, at which cattle and horses form the principal articles of sale.

Daryábád.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Bádo Saráí, on the east by the Gogra (Ghágra) river, and on the south by Basorhi *parganá*. Daryábád is said to be gradually increasing its area, owing to the recession of the Gogra towards the east. The present course of that river is now about 8 miles east of its ancient bank, the intervening ground being comparatively low. Area, 214 square miles, of which 137 are cultivated. Of the 241 villages which comprise the *parganá*, 110 are held under *tálukdárí* and 131 under *zamíndárí* tenure, the principal landholders being Surajbans Kshattriyas. Cultivated area in acres—rice, 26,023; wheat, 23,801; *joár*, 1097; *joár* and *bájrá*, 500; sugar-cane, 2063; barley, 5479; gram, 5000; poppy, 802; vegetables, 215; oil-seeds, 400; miscellaneous, 18,434. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 118,458; Muhammadans, 14,288; total, 132,746, viz. 68,347 males and 64,399 females; average density of population, 620 per square mile. This *parganá* is the headquarters of the Sátnámi sect of Hindus. The founder of the creed, Bába Jagjuván Dás, was born here, and the present religious head of the sect, Bába Jaskaran Dás, is his descendant in the twelfth generation.

Daryábád.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated on the high road from Lucknow to Faizábád (Fyzabad), about 24 miles east of

Nawábganj. Lat. 26° 53′ N., long. 81° 36′ E. Founded about 450 years ago by a deputy (*subahdár*) of Sultán Ibráhim Sharki. Formerly the headquarters of the District, but some years ago the Government offices and courts were transferred to Nawábganj, owing to the unhealthiness of the place, induced by its low swampy situation. Daryábád has since declined in importance; but it contains a few fine houses, the principal being the residence of the *tálukdár* of Rámpur. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 2890, and Muhammadans, 2509; total, 5399. Two markets; flourishing Government English school.

Darya Kheri.—Petty State held by Thákur Ranjít Sinh as a guaranteed Girasiá, or mediatized chief, in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. The Thákur receives a pecuniary allowance (*tankhá*) of £448 from Sindhia, Dewás, and Bhopál in lieu of former rights over land. He also holds a grant of two villages in Shujáwalpur under the guarantee of the British Government, and pays to the Gwalior Darbár a quit-rent of £107.

Daryápur.—Municipal town and headquarters of *táluk* of same name in Ellichpur District, Berar. Lat. 20° 56′ N., long. 77° 22′ 30″ E. Situated about 25 miles south-west of Ellichpur town, on the banks of the Chandra Bhága. Pop. (1867), 3328, chiefly Kumbís. The town contains the usual offices of administration, a police station, and 2 schools; several temples and mosques stand outside it.

Daska.—Town in Siálkot District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 3026, chiefly engaged in agriculture. Situated in lat. 32° 20′ N., and long. 74° 24′ 6″ E., on the Gujránwála road, 16 miles south-west of Siálkot. Police station, post office, dispensary, Government school. Forms with the neighbouring village of Kot Daska a third-class municipal union. Revenue (1875-76), £100, or 4⅜d. per head of population (5401) within municipal limits.

Dásna.—Town in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 40′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 33′ 55″ E.; pop. (1872), 5605, being 2564 Hindus and 3041 Muhammadans. Situated in the open plain, 23 miles south-west of Meerut, and 1 mile west of the Ganges Canal, a distributary from which irrigates the surrounding lands. Founded by Rájá Salársi, a Rájput, in the time of Mahmúd of Ghazní. Formerly contained a large fort, destroyed by Ahmad Sháh in 1760. Religious fair during the *muharram* in honour of a Musalmán saint. Mr. Michel's indigo factory at Masuri (Mussooree) employs a large number of workmen. Police station and post office. Hindu fair twice a year.

Daspallá.—Tributary State of Orissa, Bengal. Lat. 20° 10′ 50″ to 20° 35′ N., long. 84° 31′ 45″ to 85° 8′ E.; area, 568 square miles; pop. (1872), 34,805. Bounded on the north by Angul, Narsinhpur, and the Mahánadi river, which flows through the picturesque Barmúl gor

and forms an excellent waterway; on the south by the Madras State of Gumsar (Ghumsará); on the east by Khandpára and Nayágarh; and on the west by Bod. The principal mountain in the State is Goáldes, in the north, 2506 feet high. The chief village is Daspallá, in lat. 20° 18′ 40″ N., long. 84° 56′ 21″ E. The population in 1872 consisted of 23,478 Hindus, or 67·5 per cent. of the total; 5 Muhammadans; other denominations (aboriginal tribes, etc.), 11,322. Of the aboriginal races, the Kandhs (8382) are most numerous. Proportion of males in total population, 49·9 per cent.; average density of population, 61 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·76; persons per village, 81; persons per house, 4·6. Estimated annual revenue, £1349; tribute payable by the Rájá to the British Government, £66. Daspallá State is said to have been founded about 500 years ago by a son of the Rájá of Bod, the present chief, who claims to be a Kshattriya of the Solar race, being the sixteenth in descent. It is divided into two parts; Daspallá proper, lying south of the Mahánadi, the original principality; and Judum, a small tract north of the Mahánadi annexed to Daspallá by conquest. The Rájá's military force is returned at 521 men, and his police force at 269. There are 6 schools in the State, one of which is supported by the Rájá.

Dasúya. — Northern *tahsíl* of Hoshiárpur District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 44′ to 32° 5′ N., long. 75° 34′ 15″ to 75° 57′ E. Lies between the Kángra Hills and the Beas (Biás) river, which sweeps round three sides of its boundary line. Area, 476 square miles; pop. (1868), 253,807, or 533 persons per square mile.

Dasúya.—Town in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 31° 49′ N., long. 75° 41′ 45″ E. Pop. (1868), 4860. Ancient town of little modern importance. Brisk trade in local produce. *Tahsíl*, police station, post office.

Dátáganj.—*Tahsíl* of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 437 square miles, of which 273 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 194,030. Land revenue, £22,773; total revenue, £25,062; rental paid by cultivators, £45,369; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 7½d.

Dátha.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya, in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 26 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £2300, of which £509 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár, and £29 to Junágarh.

Datia.—One of the Native States in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Lat. 25° 34′ to 26° 17′ N., and long. 78° 17′ to 78° 56′ E.; area, 820 square miles; pop. (1875), 180,000. Bounded on the east by Jhánsi District, and surrounded on all other sides by the State of Gwalior (Gawáliár). It came under the supremacy of the British Government with other territories

in Bundelkhand, ceded by the Peshwá under the treaty of Bassein in 1802. The ruler at that time was Rájá Paríchhat, with whom a treaty of defensive alliance was concluded in 1804. After the deposition of the Peshwá in 1817, Rájá Paríchhat was rewarded for his attachment to the British Government by the addition of a tract of land on the east of the river Sind, and a new treaty was made with him. He was succeeded by his adopted son, Bijái Bahádur, a foundling, who died in 1857, and was succeeded by his adopted son, Bhawání Sinh, who is the present ruler. At his succession, however, an illegitimate son, Arjun Sinh, disputed the succession, and it was necessary to send a British force for the settlement of the country. Rájá Bhawání Sinh is a Bundelá Rájput, and was born about 1845. The revenues are estimated at £100,000. The State pays to Sindhia, through the British Government, £1500 of Nánashahi currency annually on account of the *parganá* of Nadigáon. The Chief has the right of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The military force consists of 97 guns, 160 gunners, 700 cavalry, and 3040 infantry.

Datia.—Chief town of Datia State, Bundelkhand, lying on the road from Agra to Ságar (Saugor), 125 miles south-east of the former, and 148 miles north-west of the latter. Lat. 25° 40′ N., long. 78° 30′ E.; estimated population 40,000, almost exclusively Hindus. Situated on a rocky eminence, surrounded by a stone wall, about 30 feet in height, but incapable of defence against modern artillery. Though composed of narrow and intricate streets, the town presents a flourishing aspect, and contains a large number of handsome houses, the residences of the local aristocracy. The Rájá's palace also stands in the town, within the walls of a pretty pleasure garden, planted with avenues of oranges, pomegranates, and other fruit trees. The wall is pierced by a fine gateway, and surmounted at each corner by embattled towers. Besides the Rájá's pavilion, the gardens enclose an octagonal building surrounded by a reservoir, containing a fountain composed of four elephants, from whose trunks arises a jet of water. Another palace, now untenanted, stands within the city precincts; while a third, also deserted, but remarkable for its great size and strength, as well as for the beauty of its architecture, lies to the west of the town, beyond the walls. A curious cluster of Jain temples, at a distance of some 4 miles deserves the attention of archæologists. The rocky ground in th neighbourhood of Datia is overgrown with stunted copse, aboundin in game; and a small artificial lake or *jhíl* lies close to the hill on whic the town stands.

Dativre.—Seaport in the Máhim Subdivision of Tanna Distri Bombay. Lat. 19° 17′ N., and long. 72° 50′ E. Average annual val of trade for five years ending 1873-74, £9057—viz. exports, £82 and imports, £778.

Dattaw.—A small stream in British Burma, which rises in the Khyí-ba spur west of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), and falls into that river near Pienthalien. Its bed is sandy and muddy; on its steep banks are found teak, cutch, *eng-gyeng* (Pentacme siamensis), much used in house-building, *thenggan* and *pyengma*. The Dattaw is only navigable for a short distance during the rains.

Datt's Bázár (or *Biru*).—Village on the Brahmaputra, in Maimansinh District, Bengal. Estimated pop. 940. One of the principal marts of the District, carrying on a large trade in jute, etc. with Náráinganj.

Dáúdnagar.—Chief town in Aurangábád Subdivision, Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 2′ 39″ N., long. 84° 26′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 10,058. Situated on the banks of the Són, and consisting mainly of miserable crooked lanes and irregular streets, containing numerous hovels. The chief public buildings are the *sarái* or rest-house built by Dáúd Khán in the part of the town named after him, and intended probably for a stronghold; and a small *imámbárá* and a *chautárá*, formerly used for the transaction of business. Manufactures of cloth, coarse carpets, and blankets carried on here; river trade with Patná, which is likely to increase after the opening of the canal close to the town. Gross municipal revenue (1871), £206, 14s.; rate of taxation, 5d. per head of population. Local police consists of 13 men. Four miles out of Dáúdnagar, on the road to Gayá, there is a beautiful temple, the carving of which was recently performed at Mírzápur.

Dáúdpur.—Depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Trade in rice, paddy, and mustard.

Dáúdzai.—*Tahsíl* of Pesháwar District, Punjab, comprising the *doáb*, or tract included between the Swát and Kábul rivers, and also the strip of land lying to the south of the latter stream. The greater part is fertile and well watered, supporting a thickly distributed population. Area, 156 square miles; pop. (1868), 72,676.

Daulatábád.—Town in the Nizám's Dominions, in lat. 19° 57′ N., and long. 75° 18′ E.; 10 miles north-west from Aurangábád, 170 north-east of Bombay, and 280 north-west of Haidarábád (Hyderabad). Celebrated for its fortress, also known by the name of Deogiri, which has from remote antiquity been the stronghold of the rulers of the Deccan. It consists of a conical rock scarped for a height of 150 feet from the base. The fort has been provided with a counterscarp gallery, and a complete system of countermines. On the summit of the rock is a small platform, on which are mounted a cannon and flagstaff. A short distance outside the ditch is a minaret 100 feet high, said to have been erected in commemoration of the first conquest of the place by the Muhammadans. The hill on which the fort stands rises almost perpendicularly from the plain to a height of about 500 feet, and is entirely isolated. The original name of the place under the Hindus was

Deogarh (Deogiri?). It received the name of Daulatábád from the Emperor Muhammad, son of Tughlak Sháh, who proposed to make it the capital of the Empire in place of Delhi, and endeavoured in vain to induce the citizens of Delhi to remove their residences accordingly.

Daulat Khán.—Chief village and headquarters of Dakshin Sháhbázpur Subdivision, Bákarganj District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 38′ N., and long. 90° 50′ 30″ E. Principal article of export, betel-nuts. Municipal income (1869-70), £240, 17s.; pop. under 5000.

Daulatpur.—Government town in Naushahro Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind; situated in lat. 26° 30′ 30″ N., and long. 68° 0′ 15″ E., on the trunk road. Pop. (1871), 1159, mainly agricultural. The Muhammadans belong to the Hotpotra tribe; the Hindus are chiefly Lohános.

Dauleswar.—Town, Godávari District, Madras.—*See* DOWLAISHVARAM.

Daunat (*Dawna*).—A range of mountains forming the eastern boundary of AMHERST DISTRICT, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. This chain starts from the Múlai-yit Hill (5500 feet high) in the main range, in lat. 16° 5′ 45″ N., long. 98° 42′ 3″ E., and extends north-west for 200 miles, dividing the waters of the Houng-tharaw and Hlaing-bhwai rivers from those of the Thoung-yeng. The general appearance of the range is that of a wooded plateau of laterite cut up by drainage into hills. At places the underlying rocks project into the bed of the Thoung-yeng, indicating volcanic agency. Large areas on the Dauna Hills are covered with evergreen forests, containing many varieties of valuable timber.

Daundia Khera.—*Parganá* in Purwa *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Ghátampur and Bhagwantnagar *parganás*, on the east by Sareni, on the south by the Ganges, and on the west by Ghátampur *parganá*. Conquered from the Bhars by the Bais clan of Kshattriyas, who here first laid the foundation of their future greatness. They rapidly extended their dominions, and their descendants now hold considerable possessions in Rái Bareli and Bára Bánki. Area, 64 square miles, of which 35 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £10,210, or an average of 5s. per acre. Principal autumn crops—cotton, rice, millet, *urd*, *múg*, vetches, etc.; spring crops—wheat, barley, gram, *arhar*, oil-seeds, sugar-cane. Pop. (1869), Hindus, chiefly of the Bais and Bráhman castes, 35,238; Musalmáns, 1028; total, 36,266, viz. 17,785 males and 18,481 females; average density of population, 567 per square mile. Of the 104 villages comprising the *parganá*, 26 are held under *tálukdárí*, 34 under *zamíndárí* and 44 under *pattidárí* tenures. Six bi-weekly markets are held for the sale of the ordinary descriptions of country produce.

Davangere.—*Táluk* in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore, augmented

1875 by the addition of Harihár *táluk*. Area, 357 square miles; pop. (1871), 105,987, of whom more than half are Lingáyats; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water-rates, £15,851, or 1s. 4d. per cultivated acre. Noted for the manufacture of *kamblis* or woollen blankets, which have been known to sell for £30 or £20 a piece.

Davangere.—Municipal town in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore, and headquarters of above *táluk*. Lat. 14° 28′ N., and long. 75° 59′ E., 40 miles north-west of Chitaldrúg; pop. (1871), 6596, composed of 5866 Hindus, 715 Muhammadans, and 15 'others;' municipal revenue (1874-75), £249; rate of taxation, 11d. per head. Originally an obscure village, Davangere became a centre of trade under the patronage of Haidar Alí, who gave it as a *jágír* to a Marhattá chief. The merchants are mostly Sivaite Bhaktas or Lingáyats. Their most valuable business is the carrying trade between Wállájá-pet in North Arcot and the neighbourhood of Ságar (Saugor) and Nágar. Exports—areca-nut, pepper, and *kamblis* or country blankets.

David, Fort St. (Native name, *Thevanapatnam*, or *Tegnapat*).—A ruined fort in South Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 44′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 49′ 30″ E., 100 miles south of Madras, and 1½ miles north of Cuddalore, of which it may be called a suburb. It was included in the 'Kaul' of 1691, by which that station was granted to the Company. (*See* CUDDALORE.) Upon the capitulation of Madras to the French in 1746, the Company's agent here assumed the general administration of British affairs in the south of India, and successfully resisted an attack by Dupleix. Clive was appointed Governor in 1756. In 1758, the French dismantled the fort, but sufficiently restored it in 1783 to withstand an attack by General Stuart. The ruined houses on the ramparts are still interesting, and some parts of the fort are yet in good preservation. Subterranean passages appear to have run completely round under the glacis, thus forming a safe means of communication for the garrison; while, at short intervals, other galleries striking off at right angles, and terminating in powder chambers, served as mines. At the south-east corner, the gallery ran down to the edge of the sea, while on the other three sides the fort was protected by the river Pennár and two canals. The ruins form a recognised landmark for mariners.

Dawá.—Chiefship in Bhandára District, Central Provinces, lying to the north of the Great Eastern Road, and about 30 miles north-east of Bhandára. Pop. (1870), 4085, chiefly Gonds and Halbás, dwelling in 12 villages, on an area of 26 square miles, of which 4709 acres are cultivated. Dawá and Kor Seoní, the only large villages, both possess indigenous schools, and the latter contains a strong colony of Korís. The chief is a Halbá. Dawá village is situated in lat. 21° 11′ N., and long. 80° 13′ E.

Dawlan.—Revenue circle lying between the Daunat Hills a Hlaingbhwai river in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, Burma. Pop. (1876), 2836, chiefly Karengs; gross revenue, £.

Dayá (*'The River of Mercy'*).—The western distributary of the of the Koyakhai river, in Orissa, through Puri District into the Lake. Subject to disastrous floods, which in the rainy season bu banks, and sometimes desolate hundreds of square miles. In t weather, a series of long shallow pools, amid expanses of sand. F mile at section half-way between Cuttack city and the sea, 1·7 mean depth of section, 16·78 feet; estimated discharge, 33,100 feet per second. Thirty-six breaches were made in its embankm 1866.

Dáyang.—River in Assam, forming the western boundary be the Nágá Hills District and the unexplored country occupied independent Nágás. It rises in the Deotigarh Mountain, and southwards into the Dhaneswari (Dhansiri); lat. 26° 26′ N., and 93° 58′ E. Navigable by small boats during the rainy season as h its junction with the Dihingiján.

Debar.—Lake in Udáipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána; sit 20 miles south-east of Udáipur town, the centre lying in lat. 24° and long. 74° 4′ E. It is formed by a dam entirely made of m stone, built across a perennial stream, where it issues through in the hills surrounding the lake. This dike is called *Jái Samand*, Ráná Jái Sinh, by whom it was constructed A.D. 1681. The len Lake Debar from east to west is about 8 or 10 miles, and its breadth about a mile; elevation above sea level, 960 feet. Its av shore is dotted with picturesque fishing hamlets, and its nor small wooded islands, adding greatly to the beauty of perhaps o the largest artificial sheets of water in the world.

Debhátá.—Municipality and chief village of Maiháti *parganá*, i District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the Jamuná. Lat. 22° 33′ 30″ N., long. 89° 0′ 15″ E. The Collector s that it contains 633 houses, and a population of 1965. Municip come in 1876-77, £139. Large trade in lime produced from burnt s

Debi Pátan.—Village with temples and large religious fair, in G District, Oudh. Lat. 27° 32′ 8″ N., long. 82° 26′ 30″ E. Stated t probably one of the oldest seats of the Sivaite cultus in Northern I The earliest legend connects it with Rájá Karna, son of Kunti mother of the three elder Pándavas by the Sun-god, and hero o impenetrable cuirass, who, abandoned in his cradle on the Ganges, adopted by Adirath, the childless King of Anga. Brought up at court of Hastinapur, Karna was refused by Droná the arms of Bra which, however, he eventually obtained from Parasuráma by fai service at his retreat on the Mahendra Mountain. In after lif

attended Duryodhana to the *Swayamvara*, described in the Mahábhárata, and, having taken a prominent part in the great war, was finally granted the city of Malini by Jarásindhu, the Sivaite King of Magadha, over which he reigned as a tributary to Duryodhana. The ruins of an ancient fort, once occupying the site of the present temple, and an adjoining tank, are popularly ascribed to this legendary monarch. In the middle of the 2d century A.D., Vikramáditya, the Bráhmanist king, who restored the sacred places of Ajodhya on the decline of Buddhism, erected a temple on the site of the ancient fort. This in its turn fell into ruins; and another was built on the same spot at the end of the 14th or beginning of the 15th century A.D., by Ratan Náth, the third in spiritual descent from Gorakh Náth, the deified saint whose worship is spread all over the Nepál valley. As far as can be judged from the remains, this temple must have been of considerable size, adorned by profuse sculptures, and full of stone images of Siva and Devi in their various forms. For some centuries, the temple was a great resort for pilgrims, chiefly from Gorakhpur and Nepál, until its importance attracted the attention of the iconoclastic Aurangzeb, one of whose officers slew the priests, destroyed the temple and images, and defiled the holy places. The temple was soon afterwards restored, but on a smaller scale, and still exists. A large religious-trading fair, lasting for about ten days, and attended by about 100,000 persons, is held here each year. The principal articles of commerce are—hill ponies, cloth, timber, mats, *ghí*, iron, cinnamon, etc. During the fair, large numbers of buffaloes, goats, and pigs are daily sacrificed at the temple.

Deccan (*Dakshin*, 'The South').—The Deccan, in its local acceptation, signifies only the elevated tract situated between the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Kistna rivers, but it is generally properly understood to include the whole country south of the Vindhyá Mountains, which separate it from Hindustán proper. In the strict sense, therefore, it comprehends the valley of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), and all southward—the belt of lowland that fringes the coast, as well as the triangular table-land, the sides of which are formed by the Eastern and Western Gháts, and the base by the Sátpura range of the sub-Vindhyás. On the western side, this table-land descends seaward by a succession of terraces, the Gháts throughout averaging 4000 feet in height above the sea, and terminating abruptly near Cape Comorin, the extreme southern point of the peninsula, at an elevation of 2000 feet. From here, following the coast line, the Eastern Gháts commence in a series of detached groups, which, uniting in about lat. 11° 40′ N., run northward along the Coromandel coast, with an average elevation of 1500 feet; and join the main ridge, which crosses the peninsula in lat. 13° 20′ N. They terminate in nearly the same latitude as their western counterpart. The Vindhyán range, running across the north of the Deccan, joins the northern extremities of the two

Gháts, and thus completes the peninsular triangle. The eastern side of the enclosed tableland being much lower than the western, all the principal rivers of the Deccan—the Godávari, Kistna, Pennár, and Káveri (Cauvery)—rising in the Western Gháts flow eastward, and escape by openings in the Eastern Gháts into the Bay of Bengal. Between the Gháts and the sea on either side, the land differs in being, on the east, composed in part of alluvial deposits brought down from the mountains, and sloping gently; while on the west, the incline is abrupt, and the coast strip is broken by irregular spurs from the Gháts, which at places descend into the sea in steep cliffs.

Geologically, the Deccan tableland presents a vast surface of hypogene schists, penetrated and broken up by extraordinary outbursts of plutonic and trappean rock; varied on the Western Gháts by laterite; on the eastern by laterite, sandstones and limestones; and in the valley of the Káveri by granite. To the north-west, this schistoid formation disappears, emerging occasionally from under one of the largest sheets of trap in the world. Underlying this surface throughout, is a granite floor; while in places overlying it are, in the following order, gneiss, mica and hornblende schists, clay-slate, marble—all destitute of organic remains—together with fossiliferous limestones, varieties of clay and sand rocks. Through all these aqueous deposits, the volcanic trap thrusts itself. Two rocks, characteristic of the Deccan, are found capping the trap—viz. laterite, an iron-clay, and *regar* known in its disintegrated state as 'black cotton-soil.' The latter is remarkable for its retentive power of moisture, and for its fertility.

Little is known of the history of the Deccan before the close of the 13th century. Hindu legends tell of its invasion by Ráma, and archæological remains bear witness to a series of early dynasties, of which the Dravida, Chola, and Andhra are the best known. Continuous history commences with the Muhammadan invasion of 1294–1300 A.D., when Alá-ud-dín, the Emperor of Delhi, conquered 'Mahárashtrá,' 'Telingána,' and 'Karnáta.' In 1338, the reduction of the Deccan was completed by Muhammad Tughlak; but a few years later, a general revolt resulted in the establishment of the (Muhammadan) Báhmani dynasty and the retrogression of Delhi supremacy beyond the Narbadá. The Báhmani dynasty subverted the (Hindu) kingdom of Telingána (1565), and (at the battle of Tálikot in the same year) the kingdom of Vijáyanagar or 'Karnata.' A few years later, it itself began to disintegrate and was broken up into the (Muhammadan) States of Bijápur, Ahmednagar, Golconda, Bídar, and Berar. The two last became extinct before 1630; the other three were successively restored to the Delhi Empire by the victories of Sháh Jehán and his son Aurangzeb. The Deccan was thus for a second time brought under the Delhi rule, but not for long. The Marhattás in 1706 obtained the right of levying tribute over

Southern India. Their leader, concentrating his strength in what is now the Bombay Presidency, founded the Satára dynasty, which afterwards resigned all real power to the Peshwá of Poona. Another usurper, rallying the southern Muhammadans round him, established the Nizámati of Haidarábád (Hyderabad). The rest of the imperial possessions in the Deccan was divided among minor chiefs, who acknowledged the supremacy of the Peshwá and of the Nizám, according as they were north or south of the Tungabhadra respectively. Mysore (Maisur) generally tributary to both, became eventually the prize of Haidar Alí; while in the extreme south, the Travancore State enjoyed, by its isolated position, uninterrupted independence. Such was the position of affairs early in the 18th century. Meanwhile, Portugal, Holland, France, and Great Britain had effected settlements on the coast; but the two former on so small a scale that in the wars of the Deccan they took no important part. The French and English, however, espoused opposite sides; and the struggle eventually resulted in establishing the supremacy of the latter. The Deccan is to-day represented by the British Presidency of Madras and part of Bombay, together with Haidarábád (Hyderabad), Mysore, Travancore, and other Native States.

Dedan.—One of the petty States of Babriáwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 11 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1875 was estimated at £3000, of which £295 is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Dedurda.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1875 was estimated at £410, of which £10 is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Deeg (*Dig*).—Town and fortress in Bhartpur State, Central India.—*See* DIG.

Deesa (*Dísa*).—British cantonment in Pálanpur State, Bombay.—*See* DISA.

Degám.—Seaport in the Jambusár Subdivision of Broach District, Bombay; situated in lat. 22° 11′ N., and long. 72° 39′ E., on the left bank of the Máhi river, about a mile from the Gulf of Cambay, and 18 miles north-west of Jambusár town. Pop. (1872), 2331; average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1871-72, £14,108, viz. exports, £5135, and imports, £8973. Mention is made of Degám as a seaport of Broach in the *Ain-i-Akbarí.*

Degh.—River in Jammu (Jummoo) State, and in Siálkot, Lahore, and Montgomery Districts, Punjab. Formed by the union of two streams at Harmandal, in Jammu, both of which take their rise in the outer Himálayan ranges. Enters British territory near the village of Takrári in Siálkot, passes into Lahore District, and finally joins the Rávi in Montgomery District in lat. 31° 2′ N., long. 73° 24′ E.

The Degh is a river of the lower slopes, and consequently depends entirely for water supply upon the local rainfall; but its channel in the upper portion never runs dry. In Siálkot District, a fringe of alluvial land lines the bank, and the current shifts constantly from side to side of the wide valley; but artificial irrigation is only practised by means of Persian wheels in a few isolated spots, where the banks rise somewhat higher than usual above the river bed. Large areas, however, benefit by the silt deposited from the summer floods. At Tappiála, in Lahore District, the Degh divides into two branches, which join again near the village of Dhenga. Below Uderi, irrigation can be effected by the natural flow of the water, the banks having sub-sided almost to the river's edge. Excellent rice grows upon the lands submerged by the inundations. In Montgomery District, the Degh again flows between high banks, but still contains sufficient water for irrigation. Its course in this portion of its route is remarkably straight, and it presents all the appearance of an artificial canal. So much water is withdrawn for agricultural purposes during its upper course, that the bed not unfrequently runs dry by the time it reaches Montgomery District. Several bridges span the Degh, notably an ancient one of very curious construction, at the point where it passes from Siálkot into Lahore, besides two at Pindi Dás and Hodiál, erected by the Emperor Jahángír. The right of fishing produces an annual rental of £300.

Dehej.—Seaport in the Wágra Subdivision of Broach District, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 42′ 45″ N., and long. 72° 38′ 30″ E., on the right bank of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), about 3 miles from the sea, and 26 miles west of Broach. Houses, 618; pop. (1872), 2092; average annual value of trade for five years ending 1871-72—exports, £6774, and imports, £53—total, £6827. Dehej was formerly the chief town of a fiscal division of 12 villages, which first came under British rule in 1780. This tract was ceded to the Marhattás in 1783, and recovered in 1818 on the final overthrow of the Peshwá's power.

Dehli.—Division, District, and City, Punjab.—*See* DELHI.

Dehra.—*Tahsíl* in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the whole of the eastern and western Dúns. Area (1872), 677 square miles, of which 99 are cultivated; pop. 75,665; land revenue, £3670; total Government revenue, £4140; rental paid by cultivators, £9017; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2d.

Dehra.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 19′ 59″ N., and long. 78° 5′ 57″ E.; pop. (1872), 7316. Prettily situated in the midst of a mountain valley, at an elevation of more than 2300 feet above sea level. Founded by Guru Rám Rái, who settled in the Dún at the end of the 17th century. His temple, a handsome building in the style of Jahángír's tomb, forms the chief architectural ornament of the town

The native city also contains a *tahsíli*, police station, jail, and schools. The European quarter lies to the north, and has a fixed English population of some 400 persons, being one of the largest in the North-Western Provinces. To the west, stand the cantonments of the 2nd Gurkhá Rifles, or Sirmúr Battalion. English church, Roman Catholic and Presbyterian chapels; dispensary, which in 1872 relieved a total number of 8948 patients; post office; headquarters of Trigonometrical Survey. Large and successful mission of the American Presbyterian Church takes a prominent part in local educational matters. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £1102; from taxes, £507.

Dehra Dún.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 57′ and 30° 59′ N. lat., and between 77° 37′ 15″ and 78° 22′ 45″ E. long., with an area of 1021 square miles, and a population (1872) of 116,945 persons. Dehra Dún forms the northern District of the Mirath (Meerut) Division. It is bounded on the north by Independent Garhwál, on the west by Sirmúr and Umballa (Ambála) District, on the south by Sahāranpur, and on the east by British and Independent Garhwál. The administrative headquarters are at the town of DEHRA.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Dehra Dún consists of two distinct portions—the double valley of Dehra proper, and the outlying mountain tract of Jaunsár Báwar. It projects northward from the alluvial uplands of the Doáb, like an irregular triangle, toward the sources of the Jumna (Jamuná) and the main range of the Himálayas. To the south, the Siwálik Hills, a mass of Himálayan *débris*, shut off the District from the level and fertile plain below. Between these hills and the great mountain chain, whose farthest outliers they form, lie the two valleys known as the Eastern and Western Dúns; the former sloping down toward the stream of the Ganges, while the latter descends by wooded undulations to the bed of its principal confluent, the Jumna (Jamuná). The scenery of these mountain dales can hardly be surpassed for picturesque beauty even among the lovely slopes of the massive chain to which they belong. The perennial streams nourish a fresh and luxuriant vegetation, whilst the romantic hills to the south and the sterner mountains on the north give an exquisite variety to the landscape. A connecting ridge, which runs from north to south between the two systems, forms the watershed of the great rivers, and divides the Eastern from the Western Dún. The Ganges, passing between this District and Garhwál, pours rapidly over beds of boulder, through several channels, encircling jungle-clad islets, and debouches at length upon the plains at Hardwár. The Jumna sweeps round the whole south-western boundary, and reaches the level uplands near Bádsháh Mahál, in Sahāranpur District, an ancient hunting-seat of the Delhi Emperors. Their tributaries have little importance, except for artificial irrigation. When the District

first passed under British rule, remains of ancient dams, tanks, and canals studded its surface; but these works had fallen completely out of use during the anarchic period of Síkh and Gurkhá incursions. Our officers at once turned their attention to the restoration of the ancient channels, or the construction of others; and a number of diminutive but valuable irrigation canals now traverse both valleys in every direction, spreading cultivation over all available portions of their rugged surface. North of the Dún proper, the massive block of mountains known as Jaunsár Báwar fills in the space between the valleys of the Tons on the west and the Jumna on the east and south. The latter river, bending sharply westward from the Garhwál boundary, divides this northern tract from the Dún, and unites with its tributary the Tons near the Sirmúr frontier. Jaunsár Báwar consists of a confused mass of rocks, evidently upheaved by volcanic action. Forests of deodara, oak, and fir still clothe large spaces on the hillsides; but cultivation can only be carried on by means of terraces cut along the mountain slopes, and artificially irrigated by dams upon the numerous minor streams. The wild elephant ranges over the Siwálik chain; while tigers, leopards, sloth bears, spotted or other deer, and monkeys abound in the remoter jungles.

History.—In the earliest ages of Hindu legend, Dehra Dún formed part of the mythical region known as Kedárkúnd, the abode of the great god Siva, whose sovereignty is still commemorated in the name of the Siwálik Hills. Many generations later, according to the most ancient myths of the Aryan settlers, the valley became bound up with the two great epics of the *Rámáyaná* and *Mahábhárata*. Hither came Ráma and his brother, to do penance for the death of the Bráhman demon-king Rávana; and here sojourned the five Pándava brethren, on their way to the inner recesses of the snowy range, where they finally immolated themselves upon the sacred peak of Mahá Panth. Another memorable legend connects the origin of the little river Suswá with the prayers of 60,000 pigmy Bráhmans, whom Indra, the rain-god, had laughed to scorn when he saw them vainly endeavouring to cross the vast lake formed by a cow's footprint filled with water. The indignant pigmies set to work, by means of penance and mortifications, to create a second Indra, who should supersede the reigning god; and when their sweat had collected into the existing river, the irreverent deity, alarmed at the surprising effect of their devotions, appeased their wrath through the good offices of Brahma. Traditions of a snake, Bámun, who became lord of the Dún on the summit of the Nágsidh Hill, seem to point towards a period of Nágá supremacy. The famous Kálsi stone, near Haripur, on the right bank of the Jumna, inscribed with an edict of the Buddhist Emperor Asoka, may mark the ancient boundary between India and the Chinese Empire. It consists of a large quartz

boulder, standing on a ledge which overhangs the river, and is covered with the figure of an elephant, besides an inscription in the ordinary character of the period. Hiouen Thsang does not mention any cities which can be identified as lying within the present District; and tradition asserts that it remained without inhabitants until the 11th century, when a passing caravan of Banjárás, struck with the beauty of the country, permanently settled on the spot. Authentic history, however, knows nothing of Dehra Dún till the 17th century, when it formed a portion of the Garhwál kingdom. The town of Dehra owes its origin to the heretical Síkh Guru, Rám Rái, a Hindu anti-pope, who was driven from the Punjab and the Síkh apostolate by doubts as to the legitimacy of his birth, and obtained recommendations from the Emperor Aurangzeb to the Rájá of Garhwál. His presence in the Dún shortly attracted numerous devotees, and the village of Gurudwára, or Dehra, grew up around the saint's abode. Rájá Fateh Sáh endowed his temple, a curious building of Muhammadan architecture, with the revenue of three estates. The Guru possessed the singular and miraculous power of dying at will, and returning to life after a concerted interval; but on one occasion, having mistaken his reckoning, he never revived, and the bed on which he died still forms a particular object of reverence to the devout worshippers at his cenotaph. Monuments of earlier date, erected by one Rání Karnávati, still exist at Nuwádá. Fateh Sáh died soon after the arrival of Rám Rái, and was succeeded (1699) by his infant grandson, Partáp Sáh, whose reign extended over the greater part of a century. But the flourishing condition of his domain soon attracted the attention of Najíb Daulá, governor of Saháranpur, who crossed the Siwáliks with a Rohillá army in 1757, and occupied the Dún without serious opposition. Under Najíb Khán's benevolent and enlightened administration, the District rose to an unexampled degree of wealth and prosperity. Canals and wells irrigated the mountain-sides, Muhammadan colonists brought capital to develop the latent resources of the soil, and mango topes, still standing amid apparently primeval forest, bear witness even now to the flourishing agriculture of this happy period. But Najíb's death in 1770 put an end to the sudden prosperity of the Dún. Henceforth a perpetual inundation of Rájputs, Gújars, Síkhs, and Gurkhás swept over the valley, till the once fertile garden degenerated again into a barren waste. Four Rájás followed one another on the throne; but the real masters were the turbulent tribes on every side, who levied constant black-mail from the unfortunate cultivators. Meanwhile, the Gurkhás, a race of mixed Nepálí origin, were advancing westward, and reached at last the territories of Garhwál. In 1803, Rájá Pardumán Sáh fled before them from Srinagar into the Dún, and thence to Saháranpur, while the savage Gurkhá host overran the whole valley unopposed. Their occupation

of Dehra Dún coincided in time with the British entry into Saháranpur, and the great earthquake of 1803 proved the miraculous harbinger of either event. The Gurkhás ruled their new acquisition with a rod of iron, so that the District threatened to become an absolute desert. The few remaining inhabitants emigrated elsewhere, and cultivation began rapidly to disappear. Under the severe fiscal arrangements of the Gurkhá governors, slavery increased with frightful rapidity, every defaulter being condemned to life-long bondage, and slaves being far cheaper in the market than horses or camels. From this unhappy condition, the advent of British rule rescued the feeble and degraded people. The constant aggressions of the Gurkhás against our frontier compelled the Government to declare war in November 1814. Dehra was immediately occupied, while our forces laid siege to the strong hill fortress of Kálanga, which fell after a gallant defence, with great loss to the besieging party. The remnant of its brave garrison entered the service of Ranjít Sinh, and afterwards died to a man in battle with the Afgháns. A resolution of Government, dated 17th November 1815, ordered the annexation of our new possession to Saháranpur; while the Gurkhás, by a treaty drawn up in the succeeding month, formally ceded the country to our authorities. The organization on a British model proceeded rapidly; and in spite of an ineffectual rising of the disaffected Gújars and other predatory classes, led by a bandit named Kalwá, in 1824, peace was never again seriously disturbed. Under the energy and perseverance of its first English officials, the Dún rapidly recovered its prosperity. Roads and canals were constructed, cultivation spread over the waste lands, and the people themselves, awaking from their previous apathy, began to acquire habits of industry and self-reliance. Jaunsár Báwar, historically an integral portion of Sirmúr, had been conquered in the same campaign as the Dún; but was at first erected into a separate charge, under a Commissioner subordinate to the Resident at Delhi. In 1829, however, it was incorporated with the present District, of which it has ever since formed a part. The events of 1857 produced little effect in this remote dependency, cut off by the Siwáliks from direct contact with the centres of disaffection in the Doáb or the Delhi Division; and though a party of Jalandhar insurgents, 600 strong, crossed the Jumna into Dehra Dún, they traversed the District without stopping, and never came into collision with the pursuing troops.

Population.—It is probable that the number of the inhabitants has more than trebled since the introduction of British rule. The first regular Census, however, took place as lately as 1865, and it returned a total population of 102,831. In 1872, the numbers had risen to 116,945, showing an increase of 14,114 persons, or 13·7 per cent. The latter enumeration extended over an area of 1021 square miles, of

which only 128 were cultivated. The population of 116,945 persons was distributed among 965 villages or townships, inhabiting an aggregate of 24,744 houses. These figures yield the following averages :—Persons per square mile, 114; villages or townships per square mile, 0·9; houses per square mile, 24; persons per village, 121; persons per house, 4·6. Classified according to sex, there were, exclusive of non-Asiatics—males, 68,044; females, 47,667; proportion of males, 58·8 per cent. The disparity between the sexes may be probably attributed to the number of recent immigrants, amongst whom men naturally predominate. Classified according to age, there were, with the like omission, under 12 years—males, 20,264; females, 17,306; total, 37,570, or 34·23 per cent. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, the Hindus numbered 102,814, or 89·3 per cent.; while the Muhammadans were returned at 12,420, or 10·7 per cent. The District also contained a resident European population of 1061, besides 190 of mixed race and 460 native Christians. The leading castes comprise the Bráhmans (10,279) and Rájputs (33,125), each of which has two broad subdivisions into the mountain and the lowland clans. The latter regard themselves as vastly superior to their hill brethren, and lose caste by intermarriage with them. The highland Bráhmans will eat any kind of meat except beef. The Gújars, immigrant plunderers of the last century, still retain several villages. Among the lower castes, the Mehras and Dhúms possess the greatest interest, as being the probable representatives of the aborigines before the tide of Aryan immigration had set in. The Mehras inhabit the remoter portions of the Eastern Dún, inferior both in physique and intelligence, and timidly averse to intercourse with strangers. The Dhúms have dingy black skins and woolly hair; they form the servile class, only just emancipated from actual slavery under British rule, and still retaining many traces of their ancient status. Most of the Muhammadans are mere chance visitors from the plains. They have secured few proselytes, except among the wretched Dhúms, and even these prefer Christianity to Islám. The District contained only one town in 1872 whose population exceeded 5000, namely, DEHRA, with 7316 inhabitants. The sanitariums of MASURI (Mussooree) and LANDAUR, now united into a single town, contain a large number of permanent residents, and attract many visitors from the plains during the hot season. KALSI, the ancient mart of Jaunsár Báwar, has now sunk to the position of a country village; while the cantonment of CHAKRATA, high among the mountains, has succeeded to local importance as the modern capital of the tract. The language in ordinary use consists of a very corrupt dialect of Hindí.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1021 square miles, only 128 were cultivated in 1872. Tillage is chiefly confined to the valleys, or to terraces on the mountain slopes, artificially irrigated by dams and canals.

The agricultural year follows the same seasons as those which prevail in the Doáb. The *kharif*, or autumn harvest, consists chiefly of rice, the inferior kinds of which can be grown in land entirely dependent on the rainfall for its water supply. *Joár*, *til*, and sugar-cane form supplementary autumn corps. The *rabí*, or spring harvest, falls far short of the *kharíf* in quantity. Its staples comprise wheat and barley, with very few inferior grains. The District produces no surplus for exportation; and since the hill stations of Masurí and Chakráta have risen into importance, a considerable amount of food-stuffs is annually imported for their supply. On the other hand, Dehra Dún now raises tea and rhea for exportation to the plains, while timber and other forest produce turn the balance of trade in its favour. Government has endeavoured to promote the reclamation of the waste lands which abound in all parts of the District, by means of grants to European capitalists; but hitherto little success has attended in these enterprises. The various agricultural staples cover the following estimated areas:—Wheat, 12,890 acres; barley, 5228 acres; rice, 13,743 acres; *mandwá*, 6412 acres. The average out-turn of wheat per acre may be set down at 11 cwts., valued at £1, 5s.; and that of barley at 15 cwts., valued at £1, 1s. Nearly three-fifths of the land is held by tenants with rights of occupancy. In the Dún proper, the peasantry have not yet extricated themselves from a condition of indebtedness to the village banker; but in Jaunsár Báwar, they occupy a comparatively enviable position, free from debt, and usually cultivating their own little farms themselves. On the tea plantations, labour obtains excellent wages, which prove quite sufficient to attract Afgháns and other foreigners into competition with natives of the Dún. In 1872, ordinary field labourers received 3d. per diem. Famine has never occurred within the historical period; and it is believed that, among a people so favourably situated as regards the demand for labour, its future occurrence may be considered a very remote contingency. The average prices of food-stuffs for the ten years ending 1870, ruled as follows:—Common rice, 12 *sers* per rupee, or 9s. 4d. per cwt.; best rice, 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5d. per cwt.; wheat, 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; barley, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The traffic of Dehra Dún has two main channels, leading from the valley to the plains and to the hills respectively. The exports toward the lowlands include timber, bamboo, lime, charcoal, rice, and above all, tea. The total annual value of the latter article raised within the District is estimated at £20,000. Some of it has even found its way, through Afghánistán, to the Russian army in Central Asia. In return, the Dún imports from the plains hardware, cotton cloth, blankets, salt, sugar, grain, tobacco, fruits, and spices. All these articles pass on also to the hills; while the return trade consist

of rice, ginger, turmeric, red pepper, honey, wax, lac, gum, resin, and other forest produce. No manufactures of more than local importance exist. The mode of carriage is confined to bullock carts, and the carrying trade remains chiefly in the hands of Banjáras. The District has only one bridged and metalled road, from Asámri to Rájpur, along which goes the traffic from the plains through the Mohan Pass, pierced by a causeway 7 miles long. Fair second-class roads connect the other centres of population with the principal passes of the Himálayas or the Siwáliks. The hill stations, however, can only be reached by means of horse paths. Two printing-presses exist in the District, and an English newspaper is published at Masurí.

Administration.—In 1870-71, Dehra Dún District contained 3 covenanted officers, the chief of whom bore the title of Superintendent, with the powers of a Magistrate and Collector. The number of courts held within the District during the same year was 5. The total revenue raised in Dehra Dún during the financial year 1874-75 was returned at £6308, of which sum £5797 was due to the land tax. The number of policemen of all kinds in the same year amounted to 279, being at the rate of 1 constable to every 3·6 square miles of area and every 419 persons. The District jail at Dehra Dún contained a daily average of 304 inmates in 1875, of whom 297 were male and 7 female. In education, the District still remains very backward. In 1875-76, the number of schools was returned at 32, with an aggregate roll of 1196 pupils; giving an average of 1 school to every 31·87 square miles, and ·102 scholars per thousand of the population. The American Mission at Dehra, established in 1853, has taken a deep interest in educational matters, and maintains a female school and girls' orphanage. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 2 *tahsíls* and 3 *parganás.* Municipalities have been established at Dehra and Masurí. In 1875-76, their joint revenue amounted to £3542; from taxes, £2062, or 2s. 1d. per head of the population (19,445) within municipal limits. During the season, however, the visitors who flock to Masurí greatly disturb the apparent incidence of taxation.

Medical Aspects.—Extremes of heat and cold are unknown in the Dehra Dún. The proximity of the Himálayas cools the atmosphere; not like Bengal, the warm blasts from the plain do not reach so far among the mountain valleys, while the heavy summer monsoons bring abundant showers, and even in May or June occasional rainfall refreshes the country. The temperature generally fluctuates between 37° and 101°; but at the sanitarium of Masurí (Mussooree), 6000 feet above sea level, the thermometer has a range from 27° to 80°. Earthquakes occasionally occur, but seldom cause serious damage. The total number of deaths recorded in the District in 1875 amounted to 2786, being at the rate of 23·82 per 1000 of the population. During the same year,

the Government charitable dispensary at Dehra gave relief to 19,676 out-door, and 649 in-door patients.

Dehrí.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 54′ 30″ N., and long. 84° 12′ 30″ E., on the west bank of the Són, at the 338th mile of the Grand Trunk Road. Now noted as the site of the head-works of the Són Canals, and of the workshops designed by Mr. Fouracres, in 1869-70, to construct and maintain the various stone, wood, and iron works scattered over the canal system. A cement factory is attached. In the Dehrí training school, opened in 1872 with the object of recruiting the upper subordinate establishments of the Public Works Department, European, Eurasian, and native lads from 14 to 17 years of age are taken as indentured apprentices. They are supplied with free lodging, and receive a small Government allowance. To the north of Dehrí town is a large indigo factory, the property of Messrs. Gisborne & Co. In 1871, a convict camp was established at Dehrí, as an experiment on a large scale, for the out-door employment of prisoners on remunerative public works. The prisoners were mainly employed on canal works connected with the Irrigation Department, till 1875, when they were moved up to Baxar, where it has been decided to build a new central jail.

Delhi (*Dehli*).—A Division under a Commissioner in the Punjab, lying between 27° 39′ and 30° 11′ N. lat., and between 76° 13′ and 77° 35′ E. long.; and comprising the three Districts of DELHI, GURGAON, and KARNAL, each of which see separately. Area, 5609 square miles, of which about half are cultivated; pop. (1868), 1,916,423.

Delhi (*Dehli*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab (Panjáb), lying between 28° 12′ and 29° 13′ N. lat., and between 76° 51′ 15″ and 77° 34′ 45″ E. long.; with an area of 1277 square miles, and a population in 1868 of 608,850. Delhi forms the central District in the Division of the same name. It is bounded on the north by Karnál, on the west by Rohtak, on the south by Gurgáon, and on the east by the river Jumna (Jamuná), which divides it from the Districts of Meerut (Mírath) and Bulandshahr in the North-Western Provinces. The administrative headquarters are at the city of DELHI, the ancient capital of the Mughal Empire.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Delhi forms the meeting-place for the alluvial plain of the Jumna valley and the last outlying ridges of the Rájputána Hills. Its northern portion presents the usual monotonous features which characterise the dry lowlands of the Cis-Sutlej (Satlaj) tract. Only as we near the Jumna does the nature of the soil exhibit any variety or increased natural fruitfulness; but along the actual verge of the river, an alluvial margin, some 10 miles in width, fringing the bank, marks the ancient bed of the main channel, which has gradually receded eastward during the course of ages, leaving a

considerable cliff far to the west, the only vestige of its original path. As the river approaches the city of Delhi, however, this lowland region rapidly contracts in width, terminating about a mile above the town, where an offshoot of the Mewat Hills abuts upon the water's edge in a wide stony plateau. The range to which this northernmost outlier belongs may be considered as a prolongation of the Aravalli system. It enters the District from Gurgáon on the southern border, and immediately expands into a rocky tableland, some 3 miles in breadth, running in a north-easterly direction nearly across the District. Ten miles south of the city, the range divides into two branches, one of which, turning sharply to the south-west, re-enters the borders of Gurgáon; while the other continues its northerly course as a narrow ridge of sandstone, and, passing to the west of Delhi, finally loses itself in the valley of the Jumna. The whole tableland nowhere attains an elevation of more than 500 feet above the lowlands at its base; while its surface consists of barren rock, too destitute of water for the possibility of cultivation, even in the few rare patches of level soil. Nevertheless, the neighbouring villages of the lowland tract have allotted this stony plateau among their various communities, and watch over their respective boundaries with the utmost jealousy. The land is only valuable as inferior grazing ground. At the very foot of the hills, however, a few villages derive fertility from the torrents which course through the ravines during the rainy season, and spread their waters over the flat plain below, thus preparing the soil for the reception of the autumn sowing. The Najafgarh *jhíl* or lake, a shallow scattered sheet of water, covers a considerable surface in the south-east of the District, the area submerged amounting in October to about 27,000 acres. The Jumna, before reaching the borders of Delhi, has been so greatly drained of its waters for the two older canals which it feeds, that it forms only a narrow stream, fordable at almost any point except during the rains; while at Okhla, a short distance below the city, the whole remaining cold weather supply is drafted off into the new Agra Canal.

History.—The tract immediately surrounding the Mughal capital can hardly be said to possess any history of its own, apart from that of the city, which will be found in full under the proper heading. From the earliest period of Aryan colonization in India, the point where the central hills first abut upon the Jumna seems to have formed the site for one great metropolis after another; so that the whole country, for some 10 or 12 miles around the modern Delhi, is covered with the *débris* of ruined cities, whose remains extend over an estimated area of 45 square miles. First upon the list of successive capitals stands the name of Indraprástha, a city founded (as General Cunningham believes) not later than the 15th century B.C., by the earliest Aryan immigrants into India, when they first began to feel their way along the tangled jungles of the Jumna

valley. The Mahábhárata vaguely enshrines the memory of this primitive settlement, and tells how the five Pándavas, leading an Aryan host from Hastinapur upon the Ganges, expelled or subdued the savage Nágás, the aboriginal inhabitants; how, having cleared their land of forest, they founded the stronghold of Indraprástha, which grew into a great kingdom; and how at last, as the Aryan race became strong enough for discord, they turned their arms against their own kinsmen, the Pauravas, whom they overthrew in a great war, the central theme of the Hindu Iliad. Yudisthira, the founder of Indraprástha, was succeeded on the throne by thirty generations of collateral descendants, until at length his line was extinguished by the usurpation of Visarwa, minister of the last Pándavite sovereign. Visarwa's family retained the sceptre for 500 years, and was then followed, with the usual symmetry of early Indian mythical lore, by a dynasty of fifteen Gautamas. In the middle of the 1st century B.C., the name of Delhi makes its earliest appearance in tradition or history; and thenceforth the annals of the District become identical with those of the whole Upper Indian Empire. Passing in succession under the rule of Hindus, Patháns, Mughals, and Marhattás, Delhi came at length into the hands of the British, after Lord Lake's victories in 1803. The tract then ceded to the Company included a considerable strip to the west of the Jumna, both north and south of the Mughal capital. The Governor-General assigned a large portion of the territory thus acquired for the maintenance and dignity of the royal family of Delhi. Sháh Alam, released from his Marhattá jailors, received as private domain for this purpose the greater part of the present Districts of Delhi and Hissár. A Resident and Chief Commissioner undertook the entire control of the fiscal arrangements, and exercised a general supervision over the criminal jurisdiction; but the king retained exclusive power within the palace walls, while British officials administered Muhammadan law in his name throughout the assigned region. A few native princes, however, still held their independent estates within the Delhi territory, the principal instance in the present District being the Rájá of BALLABHGARH. The anomalous mode of government thus instituted was obviously inconsistent with the full authority of the central power; and, in 1832, it became desirable to introduce a more practicable system of administration. A Regulation of that year abolished the office of Resident and Chief Commissioner, transferred the executive power to a Commissioner in correspondence with the Government of the North-Western Provinces, and vested the judicial functions in the High Court of Agra. This enactment placed the administration of the Delhi territory, nominally as well as actually, in the hands of the East India Company. The territory continued to form part of the North-Western Provinces up till the Mutiny of 1857. As early as 1819, a District of Delhi had been

regularly constituted, including a part of the present Rohtak District, but since enlarged by additions from Pánipat and from the confiscated principality of Ballabhgarh. On the outbreak of the Mutiny, the whole District passed for a time into the hands of the rebels; and though communications with the Punjab were soon restored, enabling us to recover the northern *parganás*, it was not till after the fall of DELHI CITY that British authority could reassert itself in the southern portion. When the final suppression of the Mutiny in 1858 enabled the work of reconstruction to proceed, Delhi District was transferred to the newly-formed Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab. At the same time, the territories of the insurgent Rájá of Ballabhgarh, who had been executed for rebellion, were confiscated and added as a new *tahsíl* to the District; while the outlying Doáb villages, hitherto belonging to Delhi, and known as the Eastern Parganá, were handed over to the North-Western Provinces. Since the banishment of the king to Rangoon, where he died in 1862, the Government of the District has been marked by no diversion from the ordinary routine of peaceful administration.

Population.—The frequent changes of boundary, both in the District as a whole and in its component *parganás*, render it impossible to institute a comparison between the results shown by the Census of 1853, under the Government of the North-Western Provinces, and those of the Census of 1868, under the Punjab administration. The latter enumeration, taken over an area of 1277 square miles, disclosed a total population of 608,850 persons, distributed among 772 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 168,390 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 496; villages per square mile, ·63; houses per square mile, 137; persons per village, 788; persons per house, 3·61. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 326,306; females, 282,544; proportion of males, 53·60 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 109,734; females, 92,898; total, 202,632, or 33·28 per cent. of the total. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus number 438,886; Muhammadans, 130,645; Síkhs, 580; and 'others,' 38,739. These figures yield the following percentages:—Hindus, 72·08; Muhammadans, 21·46; Síkhs, ·09; and 'others,' 6·36. The classification with reference to occupations shows 135,121 adult male agriculturists. Among the various castes and tribes, the Játs come first with 107,856 souls, remarkable here as elsewhere for industrious habits, agricultural skill, and promptitude in the payment of revenue. North of Delhi the greater part of the land is in their possession, though they often share their villages with Bráhman coparceners. They are found more frequently in the uplands of the interior than in the alluvial fringe of the Jumna valley. By far the greater number retain the Hindu faith of their ancestors, only 2152 being returned as Musalmáns. The Bráhmans

stand second in numerical strength with 56,465, most of whom are honest and industrious cultivators, sharing villages with the Játs, possibly as a remnant of some conquest-tenure, resembling the Síkh *chahárami* of the Cis-Sutlej tract (*vide* UMBALLA DISTRICT). The Banias or trading classes number 37,560, scattered as shopkeepers through the country villages, and forming a large proportion of the mercantile body in Delhi itself. The idle and dishonest Gújars (22,164) carry on their usual pastoral and semi-nomad avocations in the hilly plateau of the south, with no better reputation for cattle-lifting and thieving propensities than their clansmen elsewhere. The other tribes comprise 14,109 Ahírs, 10,677 Rájputs, 15,776 Patháns, and 8392 Sayyids. The District contains 4 towns with a population exceeding 5000, in 1872—DELHI CITY, 154,417; SONPAT, 12,176; FARIDABAD, 7990; and BALLABHGARH, 6281. The aggregate urban population at the date of the Census thus amounted to 180,864 persons, or 29½ per cent. of the District total. Urdu or Hindustání forms the prevailing dialect of all classes.

Agriculture.—The District of Delhi has a total cultivated area of 525,255 acres, of which 122,173 are irrigated from Government works, and 84,680 by private enterprise. The uncultivated area includes 168,197 acres of grazing land, 12,044 acres of cultivable waste, and 109,176 acres of barren rock or soil rendered useless by saline efflorescence. The north-western uplands are watered by the Western Jumna Canal, except in a few spots where the surface of the country rises above the level of the main channel. Cotton and sugar-cane here form the commercial staples of the autumn harvest, while *joár*, *bájra*, and Indian corn are the chief food-grains. In the spring sowings, wheat, barley, and gram make up the principal crops; but tobacco covers a considerable area, and rice of excellent quality is produced wherever water is abundant. The cultivation of cotton is on the increase, a ready market being obtained at Delhi. The *khádar*, or alluvial fringe of the Jumna, cannot compete with the artificially irrigated uplands. The crops in this tract include the same general staples, but the produce is inferior in kind. Well-irrigation is almost everywhere possible throughout the *khádar*, sweet water being found a few feet below the surface. South of Delhi, the nature of the soil deteriorates. Most of the land belongs to the stony ridge which projects into the District from the Aravalli range; and though the new Agra Canal traverses this unfruitful region, its level is too low to permit of irrigation. The Najafgarh *jhíl*, after being filled in the rains, is drained into the Jumna by an escape channel, and crops are then sown upon the submerged land; but only a partial success has hitherto attended the operations of the Canal Department in this respect, owing to the want of a sufficient fall. The following list shows the number of acres under each of the principal staples in 1872-73:—Wheat, 102,329; barley, 73,023; gram, 21,600; tobacco, 8488; rice,

9505; *joár*, 33,029; *bájra*, 38,120; cotton, 40,581; sugar-cane, 93,330. The Government returns of 1871-72 state the average out-turn per acre as follows:—Rice, 480 lbs.; cotton, 144 lbs.; sugar, 2240 lbs.; wheat and other grains, 640 lbs. The tenures consist of the types common in the North-Western Provinces, to which Delhi belongs in natural position and historical antecedents. The holding known as *bhayáchárá*, or brotherhood, is the most frequent. The village communities are strong and united. From 50 to 100 acres would be considered a large holding for a cultivating proprietor; 20 would be regarded as above the average for a tenant; while 5 represent the whole farm in many cases. By far the greater number of tenants possess no permanent rights of occupancy. Rents vary much with the nature of the crop which the land is suited to produce. Rice lands fetch from 10s. 6d. to 17s. per acre; cotton lands, from 14s. to 18s. 4½d.; sugar lands, from £1, 10s. to £1, 14s.; wheat lands, from 6s. to 10s.; and dry lands suitable for inferior grains, from 2s. to 4s. Wages are almost universally paid in money. Agricultural labourers received 3d., or 10 lbs. of wheat, per diem in 1874. Prices ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1873:—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; gram, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt., *joár*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt; *bájra*, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District centres almost entirely in the city of DELHI. Sonpat, Farídábád, and Ballabhgarh are local marts of some importance, but have no external transactions of any value. The manufactures are also confined to the capital, which has a high reputation for jewellery and other ornamental goods of fine workmanship. The District now lies a little apart from the main channel of trade, owing to the diversion caused by the great northern line of railway, which runs through the Doáb Districts on the other side of the Jumna. Nevertheless, the means of communication are amply sufficient, both by land and water. The East Indian Railway has a branch from Gháziábád Junction, which crosses the Jumna by an iron bridge, and has a station within the city; and this branch is also used by the Punjab line. The Rájputána State Railway traverses the District for a distance of 12 miles in the direction of Gurgáon. The Jumna is navigable during the rainy season for country boats of 400 *maunds* burden. Good metalled roads connect the city with Lahore, Agra, Jáipur (Jeypore), and Hissár; while a network of local trade-lines runs in every direction to the various minor towns and *ghâts*. Bridges of boats lead across the river at Bhágpat and Chánsa; and the railway bridge at Delhi has an underway for ordinary wheel traffic. The total length of roads within the District amounts to 360 miles.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Deputy Com-

missioner, 2 Assistant and 2 extra Assistant Commissioners, a judge of the Small Cause Court, and 3 *tahsíldárs*, besides the usual medical, fiscal, and constabulary officials. The total revenue raised in the District in 1872-73 amounted to £383,082, of which sum £89,036 was due to the land tax. Among the other items, the chief were—salt and customs, £264,909; and stamps, £14,086. For police purposes, the District is distributed into 7 police circles (*thánás*). In 1873, the regular police numbered 543 officers and men of all ranks, besides a municipal force of 488 men and a cantonment police of 11 men, together with 11 others supplied to private companies. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of persons and property consisted of 1053 constables, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 1·16 square miles of area and to every 576 of the population. But as the city of Delhi alone has 457 policemen, the real proportion for the rural *parganás* may be more fairly estimated at 1 to every 2·04 square miles. The total number of persons brought to trial upon all charges, great or small, in 1872 amounted to 4472. The District jail, adapted from an old *sarái*, received an aggregate of 1130 prisoners in 1872, with a daily average of 301 inmates. Education was carried on in 1872-73 by 98 schools and colleges, having a total roll of 4174 pupils, comprising 2950 Hindus, 1000 Muhammadans, and 224 'others.' The total amount expended by Government upon the educational budget during the same year reached a sum of £7759. The principal establishments include the Delhi College (*see* DELHI CITY), the Upper *Zilá* School, the Anglo-Arabic School, and the classes in connection with the mission of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 3 *tahsíls*, with an aggregate of 775 villages, owned by 53,909 proprietors. Five towns within the District possess municipalities, namely Delhi, Sonpat, Ballabhgarh, Farídábád, and Najafgarh. In 1875-76, the aggregate municipal revenue amounted to £28,245, or 2s. 11d. per head of the population (192,762) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Delhi does not materially differ from that of other Districts in the Jumna basin. The total annual rainfall amounted to 21·8 inches in 1869-70, 23·7 inches in 1870-71, and 33·1 inches in 1871-72. The principal endemic diseases are fever and bowel-complaints; but small-pox often commits severe ravages in an epidemic form. The total number of deaths recorded in 1872 was 19,736, being at the rate of 32 per thousand; and of these 11,303, or 18·56 per thousand, were due to fevers alone. The average death-rate for the four preceding years was 27·50 per thousand. The District contains 3 charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1872 to 18,303 patients.

Delhi (*Dehli*).—City in Delhi District, Punjab, the administrative

headquarters of the District and Division, and former capital of the Mughal Empire. Lat. 28° 38′ 58″ N., long. 77° 16′ 30″ E.; population in 1868, 154,417, being 85,087 Hindus, 61,720 Muhammadans, 357 Síkhs, and 7253 'others.' Distant from Calcutta 954 miles, from Agra 113, from Allahábád 390 miles. Estimated pop. in 1876, 160,553.

Situation and General Appearance.—The modern city of Delhi or Sháhjahánábád abuts on the right bank of the river Jumna, and is enclosed on three sides by a lofty wall of solid stone, constructed by the Emperor Sháh Jahán, and subsequently strengthened by the English at the beginning of the present century with a ditch and *glacis.* The eastern side, where the city extends to the river bank, has no wall; but the high bank is faced with masonry. The circuit of the wall is 5½ miles. It has ten gates, of which the principal are the Kashmír and Mori gates on the north; the Kábul and Lahore gates on the east; and the Ajmere and Delhi gates on the south. The Imperial palace, now known as 'the fort,' is situated in the east of the city, and abuts directly on the river. It is surrounded on three sides by an imposing wall of red sandstone, with small round towers, and a gateway on the west and south. Since the Mutiny of 1857, a great portion has been demolished in order to make room for English barracks. South of the fort, in the Dariáganj quarter of the city, is the cantonment for a regiment of native infantry, which, with one wing of a European regiment stationed within the fort, makes up the ordinary garrison of Delhi. On the opposite side of the river is the fortress of Salímgarh, erected in the 16th century by Salím Sháh, and now in ruins. At this point the East India Railway enters the city by a magnificent bridge across the Jumna, passing over Salímgarh, and through a corner of the fort, to the railway station within the city walls. Thence the line proceeds as the Rájputána State Railway, and, after traversing the city, emerges through the wall on the north-west. In the north-eastern corner of the city, within the walls and close to the Kashmír gate, are situated the treasury and other public offices. Dariáganj, the fort, the public offices, and the railway form an almost continuous line along the eastern and northern faces of the city,—the angle between them being devoted to public gardens. The area thus occupied amounts to nearly one-half of the entire city; it presents a comparatively open appearance, and forms a marked contrast to the south-west quarter of the town, which is densely occupied by the shops and dwellings of the native population.

The architectural glories of Delhi are famous alike in Indian and European literature. It is impossible in a brief notice like the present to attempt any adequate description of them. They have been treated with admirable knowledge and artistic appreciation in Mr. Fergusson's *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture* (1876). The palace of Sháh

Jahán—now the fort—perhaps less picturesque and sober in tone than that of Agra, has the advantage of being built on a more uniform plan, and by the most magnificent of the Royal builders of India. It forms a parallelogram, measuring 1600 feet east and west by 3200 north and south, exclusive of the gateways. Passing the deeply-recessed portal, a vaulted hall is entered, rising two storeys, 375 feet long, like the nave of a gigantic Gothic cathedral—'the noblest entrance,' says Mr. Fergusson, 'to any existing palace.' Omitting all mention of the music hall and smaller buildings, or fountains, however beautiful, the celebrated *díwán-i-khás* or Private Audience Hall forms, 'if not the most beautiful, certainly the most ornamented of all Jahán's buildings.' It overhangs the river, and nothing can exceed the delicacy of its inlaid work or the poetry of its design. It is round the roof of this hall that the famous inscription ran: 'If there is a heaven on earth, it is this—it is this!' which may safely be rendered into the sober English assertion, that no palace now existing in the world possesses an apartment of such unique elegance. The whole of the area between the central range of buildings to the south, measuring about 1000 feet each way, was occupied, says Mr. Fergusson, by the harem and private apartments of the palace, covering, consequently, more than twice the area of the Escurial, or, in fact, of any palace in Europe. 'According to the native plan I possess (which I see no reason for distrusting), it contained three garden courts, and about thirteen or fourteen other courts, arranged some for state, some for convenience; but what they were like we have no means of knowing. Not a vestige of them now remains. Of the public parts of the palace, all that now exists is the entrance hall, the *naubát khháná*, the *díwán-i-ám díwán-i-khás*, and the *rang mahál*—now used as a mess-room—and one or two small pavilions. These are the gems of the palace, it is true; but without the courts and corridors connecting them they lose all their meaning, and more than half their beauty. Being now situated in the middle of a British barrack-yard, they look like precious stones torn from their setting in some exquisite piece of oriental jeweller's work and set at random in a bed of the commonest plaster.'

The buildings in the native town are chiefly of brick, well-built and substantial. The smaller streets are narrow and tortuous, and in many cases end in *culs-de-sac.* On the other hand, no city in India has finer streets than the main thoroughfares of Delhi, ten in number, thoroughly drained, metalled, and lighted. The principal thoroughfare, the Chándni Chauk, or Street of Silver, leads eastwards from the fort to the Lahore gate, three-quarters of a mile long by 74 feet broad. Throughout the greater part of its length, a double row of *ním* and *pípál* trees runs down its centre on both sides of a raised path, which has taken the place of the masonry aqueduct that in former days conducted water

from the canal into the palace. A little to the south of the Chándni Chauk is the Jamá Masjíd, or great mosque, standing out boldly from a small rocky rising ground. Begun by Sháh Jahán in the fourth year of his reign, and completed in the tenth, it still remains one of the finest buildings of its kind in India. The front courtyard, 450 feet square, surrounded by a cloister open on both sides, is paved with granite inlaid with marble, and commands a view of the whole city. The mosque itself, a splendid structure forming an oblong 261 feet in length, is approached by a magnificent flight of stone steps. Three domes of white marble rise from its roof, with two tall and graceful minarets at the corners in front. The interior of the mosque is paved throughout with white marble, and the walls and roof are lined with the same material. Two other mosques in Delhi deserve a passing notice,—the Kálá Masjíd, or black mosque, so called from the dark colour given to it by time, and supposed to have been built by one of the early Afghán sovereigns; and the mosque of Roshán-ud-daulá. Among the more modern buildings of Delhi may be mentioned the Government College, founded in 1792; the Residency; and the Protestant church, built at a cost of £10,000, by Colonel Skinner, an officer well known in the history of the East India Company. About half-way down the Chándni Chauk is a high clock-tower, with the Institute and Museum opposite. Behind the Chándni Chauk, to the north, lie the Queen's Gardens; beyond them the 'city lines' stretch away as far as the historic 'ridge,' about a mile outside the town. From the summit of this ridge the view of the station and city is very picturesque. To the west and north-west, considerable suburbs cluster beyond the walls, containing the tombs of the imperial family. That of Humáyun, the second of the Mughal dynasty, is a noble building of granite inlaid with marble. It lies about 2 miles from the city, amid a large garden of terraces and fountains, the whole surrounded by an embattled wall, with towers and four gateways. In the centre stands a platform about 20 feet high by 200 feet square, supported by cloisters, and ascended by four great flights of granite steps. Above rises the Mausoleum, also a square, with a great dome of white marble in the centre. About a mile to the westward is another burying-ground, or collection of tombs and small mosques, some of them very beautiful. The most remarkable is perhaps the little chapel in honour of a celebrated Musulmán saint, Nizám-ud-dín, near whose shrine the members of the late imperial family, up to the time of the Mutiny, lie buried, each in his own little enclosure, surrounded by very elegant lattice-work of white marble. Other buildings, ruins, and pillars will be described under the next section, *History*. The Kutab Minár is situated about 10 miles to the south of the city. (*See* p. 88.)

The palaces of the nobles, which formerly gave an air of grandeur

to the city, have for the most part disappeared. Their sites are occupied by structures of less pretension, but still with some elegance of architectural design. The city is now amply supplied with water; and much attention has of late been paid to cleanliness and sanitary requirements generally. The principal local institution was, until 1877, the Delhi College, founded in 1792. It was at first exclusively an oriental school, supported by the voluntary contributions of Muhammadan gentlemen, and managed by a committee of the subscribers. In 1829, an English department was added to it; and in 1855, the institution was placed under the control of the Educational Department. The old college attained to great celebrity as an educational institution, and produced many excellent scholars. In the Mutiny of 1857, it was plundered of a very valuable oriental library, and the building completely destroyed. A new college was founded in 1858, and affiliated to the University of Calcutta in 1864. Under orders of the Government of the Punjab (February 1877), the collegiate staff of teachers will be withdrawn, in order to concentrate the grant available for higher-class education upon the central institution at Lahore, the capital of the Punjab Province.

History.—Delhi stands upon a site which has been occupied by many successive capitals, since the first Aryan immigration into the valley of the Jumna. The village and fort of Indrapat or Purána Kilá, 2 miles south of the existing walls, mark the spot where the earliest colonists placed their city of Indraprástha (*see* DELHI DISTRICT); but the name of Dilli or Dillipur only makes its appearance in the middle of the first century B.C. General Cunningham, following the authority of Ferishta, attributes the foundation of this original Delhi, 5 miles lower down the river than its modern representative, to Rájá Dilu, apparently the last ruler of the Mayura dynasty, whom tradition names as successors to the Gautama line of Indraprástha. But the earliest authentic information which we obtain with regard to the city is derived from the famous iron pillar of Rájá Dháva, set up in the 3rd or 4th century A.D. This remarkable relic consists of a solid shaft of metal, 16 inches in diameter and about 50 feet in length, so firmly planted in the earth that less than half its height appears above the ground. A Sanskrit inscription, deeply cut on its western face, records the story of its origin. Mr. James Prinsep, the first decipherer of the legend, found that it commemorated the prowess of Rájá Dháva, who 'obtained with his own arm an undivided sovereignty on the earth for a long period;' while the letters appear to be 'the typical cuts inflicted on his enemies by his sword, writing his immortal fame.' General Cunningham suggests the year 319 A.D. as an approximation to the date, on the ground that the Rájá may probably have contributed to the downfall of the great Gupta dynasty (*see* KANAUJ), which is

supposed to have occurred in that year. Tradition, however, running counter to the unimpeachable authority of the inscription, refers the erection of the pillar to Anang Pál, founder of the Tuár dynasty in the 8th century A.D. A holy Bráhman assured the Rájá that the pillar had been driven so deeply into the earth, that it reached the head of Vasuki, the serpent king, who supports the world; and, consequently, had become immoveable, whereby the dominion was ensured for ever to the dynasty of its founder, so long as the pillar stood. The incredulous Rájá ordered the monument to be dug up, when its base was found reddened with the blood of the serpent king. Thus convinced, Anang Pál at once commanded that the shaft should be sunk again in the earth; but, as a punishment for his want of faith, it appeared that no force could restore it in its place as before. Hence the city derived its name of Dhili, from the fact that the column remained loose (*dhíla*) in the ground! Unfortunately for the legend, not only does the inscription prove its falsity, but the name of Dilli is undoubtedly earlier than the rise of the Tuár dynasty. Anang Pál, whose accession is placed by General Cunningham in the year 736 A.D., restored Delhi, which had fallen into ruins for some generations, and made it the capital of his race. The later Rájás, however, appear to have taken up their residence at Kanauj, whence they were expelled about the middle of the 11th century by Chandra Deva, the first of the Rahtor kings. Anang Pál II. then retired to Delhi, which became once more the Tuár metropolis. He rebuilt and adorned the city, surrounding it with a massive line of fortifications, whose ruins are still believed to exist in the great circle of masonry lying around the Kutab Minár. The date of this restoration has been preserved for us by a second inscription, cut into the more ancient pillar of Rájá Dháva: 'In Sambat 1109' [1052 A.D.], 'Anang Pál peopled Dilli.' Just a century later, under the reign of a third Anang Pál, last of the Tuár line, Delhi fell before Visaldeva or Bisaldeo, Chauhán ruler of AJMERE. The conqueror permitted the vanquished Rájá to retain possession as a vassal; and from a marriage between the two houses sprang the celebrated Prithvi Rájá, the last champion of Hindu independence in Upper India, who thus succeeded to the joint realms of the Tuárs and the Chauháns. Prithvi Rájá further strengthened the defences of the city by an exterior wall, which ran round the fortifications of Anang Pál, and of which remains may still be traced for a considerable distance. In 1191, Sháhab-ud-dín made his first invasion of Upper India, bringing the religion of the prophet and authentic history in his train. Prithvi Rájá successfully defended his kingdom for the time; but two years later, the Muhammadan marauder returned, utterly overthrew the Hindus in a great battle, and put their prince to death in cold blood.

Kutab-ud-dín, the Sultán's Viceroy, attacked and took Delhi,

which became thenceforth the Musalmán capital. On the death of Shaháb-ud-dín, in 1206, the Viceroy became an independent sovereign, and founder of the Slave dynasty, to whom Old Delhi owes most of its grandest ruins. Kutab-ud-dín's mosque was commenced, according to the inscription on its entrance archway, immediately after the capture of the city in 1193. It was completed in three years, and enlarged during the reign of Altamsh, son-in-law of the founder. This mosque consists of an outer and inner courtyard, the latter surrounded by an exquisite colonnade, whose richly decorated shafts have been torn from the precincts of earlier Hindu temples. Originally a thick coat of plaster concealed from the believers' eyes the profuse idolatrous ornamentations; but the stucco has now fallen away, revealing the delicate workmanship of the Hindu artists in all its pristine wealth. Eleven magnificent arches close its western façade, Muhammadan in outline and design, but carried out in detail by Hindu workmen, as the intricate lacework which covers every portion of the arcade sufficiently bears witness. Ibn Batuta, who saw the mosque about 150 years after its erection, describes it as unequalled either for beauty or extent.

The Kutab Minár, another celebrated monument of the great Slave king, stands in the south-east corner of the outer courtyard. It rises to a height of 238 feet, tapering gracefully from a diameter of 47 feet at the base to nearly 9 feet at the summit. The shaft consists of 5 storeys, enclosing a spiral staircase, and is crowned by a now broken cupola, which fell during an earthquake in 1803. The original purpose of the minaret was doubtless as a Muazzam's tower, whence the call to morning and evening prayer might be heard throughout the whole city. The site chosen for the mosque was that already occupied by Rájá Dháva's pillar, which forms the centre ornament of the inner courtyard. Around, in every direction, spreads a heap of splendid ruins, the most striking of which is the unfinished minaret of Alá-ud-dín, commenced in 1311. The Slave dynasty retained the sovereignty till 1288, when Jalál-ud-dín founded a new line. During the reign of Alá-ud-dín, Delhi was twice unsuccessfully attacked by the Mughal hordes.

In 1321, the house of Tughlak succeeded to the Musalmán Empire; and Ghiyás-ud-dín, its founder, erected a new capital, Tughlakábád, on a rocky eminence 4 miles further to the east. Remains of a massive citadel, and deserted streets or lanes, still mark the spot on which this third metropolis arose; but no human inhabitants now frequent the vast and desolate ruins. Ghiyás-ud-dín died in 1325, and was succeeded by his son Muhammad Tughlak, who thrice attempted to remove the seat of Government and the whole population from Delhi to Deogiri in the Deccan. Ibn Batuta, a native of Tangiers, who visited his court in 1341, gives a graphic picture of the desolate

city, with its magnificent architectural works, and its bare, unpeopled houses. Firoz Sháh Tughlak once more removed the site of Delhi to a new town, Firozábád, which appears to have occupied the ground between the tomb of Humáyun and the Ridge. Amid the ruins of this prince's palace, just outside the modern south gate, stands one of the famous pillars originally erected by Asoka, the great Buddhist Emperor, in the 3rd century B.C. This monolith, 42 feet in height, known as Firoz Sháh's *láthi* or club, is composed of pale pink sandstone, and contains a Páli inscription, deciphered by the painstaking scholarship and ingenuity of Mr. James Prinsep. Its connection with Delhi, however, does not date further back than the reign of Firoz Sháh, who brought it from near Khizrábád on the upper waters of the Jumna, and fixed it on the summit of his comparatively modern building.

In December 1398, during the reign of Muhammad Tughlak, the hordes of Tímur reached Delhi. The king fled to Guzerat, the army suffered a defeat beneath the walls, and Tímur, entering the city, gave it over for five days to plunder and massacre. Dead bodies choked the streets; and when at last even the Mughal appetite for carnage was satiated, the host retired dragging with them into slavery large numbers both of men and women. For two months Delhi remained absolutely without a show of government; until Muhammad Tughlak recovered a miserable fragment of his former empire. In 1412, he died; and his successors, the Sayyid dynasty, held Delhi with a petty principality in the neighbourhood until 1444. The Lodí family, who succeeded to the Musalmán Empire in that year, appear to have deserted Delhi, fixing their residence and the seat of Government at AGRA. In 1526, Bábar, the sixth in descent from Tímur, and founder of the so-called Mughal dynasty, marched into India with a small but disciplined force; and having overthrown Ibráhim Lodí, the last Afghán prince, on the decisive field of PANIPAT, advanced upon Delhi, which he entered in May of the same year. The new sovereign, however, resided mainly at Agra, where he died in 1530. His son Humáyun removed to Delhi, and built or restored the fort of Purána Kila on the site of Indraprástha. The Afghán Sher Sháh, who drove out Humáyun in 1540, enclosed and fortified the city with a new wall. One of his approaches, known as the Lál Darwáza or Red Gate, still stands isolated on the roadside, facing the modern jail. The fortress of Salímgarh, already mentioned, preserves the name of a son of Sher Sháh. In 1555, Humáyun regained his throne, but died within six months of his restoration. His tomb forms one of the most striking architectural monuments in the neighbourhood. Akbar and Jahángir usually resided at Agra, Lahore, or Ajmere (Ajmír); and Delhi again languished in disfavour till the reign of Sháh Jahán. This magnificent Emperor rebuilt the city in its present form, surrounding it with the existing fortifications, and adding the title of

Sháhjahánábád from his own name. He also built the Jamá Mas
and reopened the Western Jumna Canal. Under the reign
Aurangzeb, Delhi was the seat of that profuse and splendid court wh
glories were narrated to Europe in extravagant fables by travellers
missionaries.

After the death of Aurangzeb, the Empire fell rapidly to pieces;
the numerous palace intrigues and revolutions amid which it br
up, belong to the general domain of Indian history. In 17
during the reign of Muhammad Sháh, the Marhattás first appea
beneath the walls of Delhi. Three years later, Nádir Sháh ente
the city in triumph, and re-enacted the massacre of Tímur. For fi
eight days the victorious Persian plundered rich and poor alike; wh
the last farthing had been exacted, he left the city with a bo
estimated at £9,000,000. Before the final disruption of the decay
empire in 1760, the unhappy capital was devastated by a civil w
carried on for six months in its streets; twice sacked by Ahmad Sh
Duráni; and finally spoiled by the rapacious Marhattás. Alamgír
the last real Emperor, was murdered in 1760. Sháh Alam, who assum
the empty title, could not establish his authority in Delhi, whi
became the alternate prey of Afghán and Marhattá until 1771, wh
the latter party restored the phantom Emperor to the city of
ancestors. In 1788, a Marhattá garrison permanently occupied t
palace, and the king remained a prisoner in the hands of Sindhia un
the British conquest.

On March 14th, 1803, Lord Lake, having defeated the Marhatt
entered Delhi, and took the king under his protection. Next ye
Holkár attacked the city; but Col. Ochterlony, the British Reside
successfully held out against overwhelming numbers for eight days, u
relieved by Lord Lake. The conquered territory was administered
the British in the name of the Emperor (*see* DELHI DISTRICT), wh
the palace remained under His Majesty's jurisdiction. For more th
half a century Delhi was happy in an entire freedom from the incide
of history. But the Mutiny of 1857 once more gave it prominence
the revived capital of the fallen Empire. The outbreak at Meerut t
place on the evening of May 10th; and early next morning
mutinous troopers had crossed the Jumna, and clamoured for adr
sion beneath the Delhi wall. The Commandant of the Guards,
Commissioner, and the Collector retired to the Lahore gate of the pal
and were there cut to pieces. Most of the European residents had t
their houses within the city. The mutineers and the mob fell u
them at once, carrying murder and plunder into every house.
mutinous infantry from Meerut arrived; and by eight o'clock the re
held the whole city, except the magazine and the main-guard. New
these events soon reached the cantonment beyond the Ridge, w

three battalions of Native infantry and a battery of Native artillery were stationed. The 54th N.I. was marched promptly down to the main-guard, but proved rebels on their arrival, and cut down several of their officers. Portions of two regiments, however, together with the artillery, remained all day under arms in the main-guard, and were reinforced from time to time by the few fugitives who succeeded in escaping from the city. The magazine stood half-way between the palace and the main-guard; and here Lieutenant Willoughby, with eight other Europeans, held out bravely for some time, determined to defend the immense store of munitions collected within; but about mid-day, defence became hopeless, and the nine brave men blew up the magazine behind them. Five perished in the explosion; two reached the main-guard; while the remaining two escaped by a different road to Meerut. All day long the Sepoys in the cantonment and the main-guard were restrained by the expected arrival of white regiments from Meerut; but as evening drew on, and no European troops appeared, they openly threw off their allegiance, and began an indiscriminate massacre of the officers, women, and children. A few escaped along the roads to Meerut or Karnál, but most even of these were murdered or perished of hunger on the way. By nightfall, every vestige of British authority had disappeared alike in the cantonments and in the city. Meanwhile, in Delhi, some fifty Christians, European or Eurasian, mostly women and children, had been thrust indiscriminately into a room of the palace, and, after sixteen days' confinement, were massacred in the courtyard.

The restoration of Mughal sovereignty, and the acts by which it was accompanied, belong rather to Imperial than local history. The Court of the rebel Emperor did not long enjoy its independence. On June 8th, 1857, the British forces fought the battle of Badli-ka-Sarái, and the same evening swept the mutineers from the cantonments, and encamped upon the rocky ridge outside the city. For three months the siege proceeded under the most disadvantageous conditions, and at length, on September 8th, the heavy batteries were got into action, and an assault was prepared. On the 14th, our troops advanced to storm the gates, in the face of an overwhelming rebel garrison, and, in spite of serious losses and heavy fighting, succeeded by a marvellous display of gallantry in carrying the bastions and occupying the whole eastern quarter of the city. For five days fighting continued in the streets, the rebels retreating from point to point, and every defensible position being occupied by our troops only after a severe struggle. On the night of the 20th, the palace and the remaining portions of the city were evacuated by the mutineers, and Delhi came once more into the possession of the British forces. The king, with several members of his family, took refuge in the tomb of Humáyun, and surrendered on the 21st. Tried by a military commission, he

was found guilty of encouraging acts of rebellion and murder, but, owing to the terms of his surrender, received no heavier penalty than that of perpetual banishment. He died at Rangoon on October 7th, 1862. Delhi, thus recovered, remained for a while under military government; and it became necessary, owing to the frequent murders of European soldiers, to temporarily expel the population from the city. Shortly after, the Hindu inhabitants were freely readmitted; but the Muhammadans were still rigorously excluded, till the restoration of the city to the civil authorities, on January the 11th, 1858. The work of reorganization then continued rapidly during the remainder of that year; and after a few months, the shattered bastions and the ruined walls alone recalled the memory of the Mutiny. Since that date Delhi has settled down into a prosperous commercial town, and a great railway centre. The romance of antiquity still lingers around it, and Delhi was chosen as the scene of the Imperial Proclamation on the 1st of January 1877.

Population.—In 1853, the number of inhabitants of Delhi City was returned at 152,426. In 1868, the population numbered 154,417, showing an increase of 1991 persons in the fifteen years. Taking into consideration the actual losses during the Mutiny, the expulsion of the Musalmáns after its suppression, and the large number of persons thrown out of employment by the removal court, the fact that such an increase should have taken place bears witness to the renewed prosperity of the city. According to the Census of 1868, the population was composed of 83,346 males and 71,071 females. The Hindus numbered 85,087, being 46,541 males and 38,546 females; the Muhammadans, 61,720, being 32,361 males and 29,359 females. There were also 357 Síkhs, and 7253 'others.' In 1876, the population of Delhi and its suburbs was returned at 160,553.

Institutions, Public Buildings, etc.—The Delhi Institute, a handsome building in the Chándni Chauk, erected by public subscription, with the assistance of a Government grant, contains a Darbár Hall, a museum, a library and reading room, and the lecture theatre and ball-room of the station. The municipal committee and the honorary magistrates hold their sittings in the Darbár Hall. The official buildings include the District court offices and treasury, just within the Kashmir gate, the *tahsíli* and police offices, the District jail, the lunatic asylum, the sick hospital, and a dispensary, with two branches. The poorhouse is supported by private subscription, supplemented by a grant from the municipal funds. Four churches exist in Delhi, the Station Church, the Roman Catholic and Presbyterian chapels, and a chapel belonging to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. The Delhi College, founded in 1792, and supported by the voluntary contributions of Muhammadan gentlemen, acquired a large accession of

income in 1829, from the gift of £17,000 by Nawáb Fazl Alí Khán of Lucknow. In 1855, the Educational Department undertook the management. During the Mutiny, the valuable oriental library was plundered, and the building destroyed. A new institution, founded in 1858, was affiliated to the Calcutta University in 1864, and educates up to the level of its degrees.

Communications, Trade, etc.—The East Indian Railway enters Delhi by an iron bridge over the Jumna, from Gháziábád Junction in Meerut District. The Punjab Railway also runs its trains over the same branch line. The terminus stands in the city, near the fort. The Rájputána State Railway, running to Ajmere, has its station adjoining that of the other lines. The Grand Trunk Road and other metalled highways lead to all important centres, and the Jumna carries a large portion of the heavy traffic. Delhi possesses a very considerable trade, though the continuation of the great north-western trunk railway on the eastern bank of the river has thrown it somewhat off the modern line of traffic. It still forms, however, the main entrepôt for commerce between Calcutta or Bombay on the one side, and Rájputána on the other. The chief imports include indigo, chemicals, cotton, silk, fibres, grain, oil-seeds, *ghí*, metals, salt, horns, hides, and European piece-goods. The exports consist of the same articles in transit, together with tobacco, sugar, oil, jewellery, and gold or silver lacework. Beyond the borders of the Province, Delhi merchants correspond with those of Jínd, Kábul, Alwar, Bikaner (Bickaneer), Jaipur (Jeypore), and the Doáb; while with all the Punjab towns they have extensive dealings. The Bengal and Delhi banks represent European finance, and several cotton merchants have agents in the city. The only manufacture of importance consists of gold, silver, or tinsel filigree work, for which Delhi has long been famous; but the imitation of European models is unfortunately destroying its originality and beauty. The abolition of the Mughal court has also acted prejudicially to this branch of industry. The internal affairs of the city are managed by a first-class municipality. The municipal income in 1875-76 amounted to £26,577, and the expenditure to £24,512.

Demágiri.—Falls in the river KARNAPHULI in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal. About three days' journey from Barkal, where the Karnaphulí narrows considerably as it enters the higher ranges of hills in the District. Above the Demágiri Falls it becomes an insignificant stream. A *bázár* for trade in india-rubber, opened at the village of Demágiri in 1872, has now become a flourishing mart.

Denkankotai. — Town in Osúr *táluk*, Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 31′ 45″ N., long. 77° 49′ 50″ E.; elevation above sea level about 2000 feet; houses, 902; pop. (1872), 4797. Situated 68 miles north of Salem. As the headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, it

contains the usual subordinate administrative establishments. Up to 1859, Denkankotai, the upland Division of Osúr, formed a separate *táluk*, now incorporated with Osúr. It was ceded with the Bára Mahál to the British in 1792.

Denwa.—River in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, running in a rough semicircle round the scarped cliffs on the eastern and northern faces of the Mahádeo chain. Rising in lat. 22° 20′ N., and long. 78° 27′ 30″ E., it winds through a deep glen into a small valley shut off from the main Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley by an irregular line of low hills, and entering the hills again towards the west, it meets the Táwa (lat. 22° 34′ N., long. 78° 0′ 30″ E.) a few miles above Bágrá.

Denwa.—Forest in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, covering a level tract of about 100 square miles along the valley of the Denwa river. Abounds in fine *sál* wood.

Deo.—Town in Aurangábád Subdivision, Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 39′ 30″ N., long. 84° 28′ 38″ E. Seat of the Deo Rájás, one of the most ancient families of Behar, who trace their descent from the Ránás of Udáipur (Oodeypore). In the struggle between Warren Hastings and the Rájá of Benares, the Deo Rájá, although too old to take the field in person, joined his forces to those of the British. His next successor mustered a loyal contingent against the mutineers at Sargujá. His son, in turn, rendered good service to us in quelling the Kol insurrection. The present Rájá stood boldly forward for the British during the Mutiny of 1857. Four generations of unswerving loyalty have been rewarded by liberal grants of land and villages, and the present chief (1877), Sir Jái Prakásh Sinh, K.C.S.I., received the title of Mahárájá Bahádur, with a Knight Commandership of the Star of India, for his services in 1857. Seat of an old ruined fort and famous temple, at which thousands of people congregate twice a year to hold the *Chhat* festival in honour of the Sun-god.

Deoband.—Southern *tahsíl* of Sahháranpur District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a level agricultural plain, traversed by the Eastern Jumna (Jamuná) Canal, and by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Area, 387 square miles, of which 314 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 198,693; land revenue, £30,205; total Government revenue, £33,356; rental paid by cultivators, £48,682; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 5¼d.

Deoband.—Municipal town in Sahháranpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Area, 193 acres; pop. (1872), 19,168, being 8614 Hindus and 10,554 Muhammadans. Lies in lat. 29° 41′ 50″ N., and long. 77° 43′ 10″ E., about 2½ miles to the west of the East Káli Nadi, with which it was formerly connected by a waterway known as the Jor. Half a mile from the town, the Jor expands into a small lake, the Devi-kúnd, whose banks

are covered with temples, *gháts*, and *sati* monuments, much frequented by devout pilgrims. The town has 4 *bázárs*, 3 of which are prosperous and cleanly. The dominant Musalmán population maintain no less than 42 mosques. Yet Deoband is essentially a town of Hindu origin, with a legendary history of 3000 years. The Pándavas passed their first exile within its precincts, and the fortress was one of the earliest to fall before the famous Musalmán saint, Sálár Masáúd Ghází. Originally the town bore the name of Deviban or the Sacred Grove, and a religious assembly still takes place yearly in a neighbouring wood, which contains a temple of Devi. During the Mutiny several disturbances occurred, but they were repressed without serious difficulty. Export trade in grain, refined sugar, and oil; manufacture of fine cloth. Dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, police station, post office, *tahsíli*. Distant from Muzaffarnagar 15½ miles north. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £2011; from taxes, £1010, or 1s. 0⅝d. per head of population (18,976) within municipal limits.

Deocha.—Village in Birbhúm District, Bengal. One of the three or four places in the District where the smelting of iron is carried on. There are here thirty furnaces for the reduction of the ore into pig-iron, and as many more for refining it. A curious feature of this industry is, that these two operations are conducted by people of totally different sects and religion—the reducers of the ore being invariably Muhammadans, and the refiners as invariably Hindus. The furnaces work throughout the year, with occasional stoppages for festivals. From each furnace a produce of about 34 tons of pig-iron is annually obtained; the characteristics of the Bírbhúm metal are toughness and malleability.

Deodangar (or *Deodonga*).—Mountain peak in Párla Kimedi estate, Ganjám District, Madras; situated in lat. 18° 54′ 35″ N., and long. 84° 6′ 2″ E., 20 miles south-west from Mahendragiri, and 9 from Namanagaram. Height, 4534 feet above the sea; a station of the Trigonometrical Survey.

Deodar (*Diodar*).—Native State under the Political Agency of Pálanpur, in Guzerat, Bombay; bounded on the north by Thárad, on the east by Kánkrej, on the south by Bhábhar and Terwára, and on the west by Suigám and Thárad. Estimated area, 440 square miles; pop. (1872), 19,701, principally Rájputs and Kolís; estimated revenue, £2500. The country consists of a flat, open plain, covered with low brushwood. The soil is generally sandy, producing but one crop yearly, and that only of the common sorts of grain. There are no rivers, but numerous ponds and reservoirs, which, as a rule, dry up before the end of March. There are no means of irrigation, and the water, found at a depth of from 40 to 60 feet, is brackish. April, May, June, and July are excessively hot; rain falls in August and September; October and

November are again warm; while the period from December to March is cold and agreeable. Fever is the prevailing disease. Coarse cloth, worn by the poorest classes, is manufactured by men of the Dher caste. There are numerous country tracks fit for carts, but no regular road has yet been made. Clarified butter is the only export, which finds a ready market in the neighbouring Districts. The present (1875) Chief is fifty years of age. His name is Malaji Akhesinh Waghelá, and his title Thákur. He has no issue, but his co-sharer, Bhupat Sinh, who is forty-eight years of age, has two sons. The chief does not possess a *sanad* authorizing adoption, nor does the succession follow the rule of primogeniture. No military force is maintained. The first relations between Deodar and the British date from 1819. This State depends on the British Government for external defence, but is allowed complete freedom in the internal management of its affairs. The chief town of the State, Deodar, is situated in lat. 24° 8′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 49′ E., 45 miles west of Pálanpur.

Deogáon.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 261 square miles, of which 139 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 135,458; land revenue, £17,104; total Government revenue, £18,773; rental paid by cultivators, £37,012; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 0⅝d.

Deogarh.—Subdivision of the District of the Sántal Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 24° 2′ 30″ to 24° 36′ N., and long. 86° 30′ to 87° 6′ 30″ E.; area, 1734 miles; townships, 3334; houses, 57,854; pop. (1872), 342,390. Of the total population, 254,149, or 74·3 per cent., are Hindus; 22,684, or 6·6 per cent., are Muhammadans; 73 Christians; and 65,484, or 19·1 per cent., belong to other denominations not specified. Proportion of males in total population, 50·7 per cent.; average density of population, 197 per square mile; average number of townships per square mile, 1·92; inhabitants per township, 103; houses per square mile, 33; inmates per house, 5·9. This Subdivision comprises the 3 *thánás* or police circles of Deogarh, Koron, and Jámtára. It contained, in 1870-71, 4 magisterial and revenue courts, a general police force of 172 men, and a village watch of 1326 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £2073, 8s.

Deogarh.—Administrative headquarters of Deogarh Subdivision, Santál Parganás District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 29′ 34″ N., long. 86° 44′ 35″ E., about 4 miles east of the Chord line of railway; pop. (1872), 4861. Deogarh is the only municipality in the Santál Parganás; revenue (1876-77), £317; average rate of taxation, 10¼d. per head of population. The principal object of interest is the group of 22 temples dedicated to Siva, which form a centre of pilgrimage for Hindus from all parts of India.

Deogarh.—Seaport in the Deogarh Subdivision of Ratnágiri District,

Bombay. Lat. 16° 22′ N., long. 73° 24′ E.; average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £7428; imports, £6052.

Deogarh. — Village in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; picturesquely situated among the hills, about 24 miles south-west of Chhindwára town. Ancient seat of the midland Gond kingdom. Though now containing only 50 or 60 houses, the traces of foundations in the surrounding jungle, and the numerous remains of wells and tanks, show that the former city must have covered a large area. Deogarh contains several old temples, and on a high peak outside the village stands a ruined stone fort. All the buildings are constructed of the finest limestone.

Deogarh.—State forest in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; occupying an area of about 90 square miles, and containing fine teak and other timber trees.

Deohrá.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 6′ N., long. 77° 44′ E., upon a tributary of the river Pálar, in a fertile valley enclosed by mountains, on whose terraces rice and other crops are carefully cultivated. Thornton describes the residence of the Ráná, as built in partially Chinese style, the lower portion consisting of masonry, while the upper half is ringed round with wooden galleries, and capped by overhanging eaves. Elevation above sea level, 6550 feet.

Deoláli.—Cantonment in the Násik Subdivision of Násik District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 56′ 20″ N., and long. 73° 51′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 1906. Well known to European soldiers as the railway station at which all reliefs are halted for the first time after disembarkation at Bombay.

Deolí.—Town in Wardha District, Central Provinces, and the second largest cotton mart in the District; 11 miles south-west of Wardha. Lat. 20° 39′ N., long. 78° 31′ 30″ E.; pop. (1876), 5558. At the market, held every Saturday and Sunday, a brisk traffic is carried on in cattle and agricultural produce. Deolí has two market-places, one specially set apart for the cotton merchants, in which the ground is covered with loose stones, to preserve the cotton from dirt and white ants; in the centre are two raised platforms, on which the cotton is weighed. Anglo-vernacular town school, Government garden, *sarái* with furnished rooms for Europeans, dispensary, and police station, etc. In 1870, Rájá Tánojí Bhonslá, the representative of the former rulers of Nágpur, held Deolí at a quit-rent.

Deonthál.—Village in Simla District, Punjab, lying in lat. 31° 1′ N., and long. 77° 2′ E., on the route from Subáthu to Simla, 3½ miles north of the former station; situated in a romantic glen, on the banks of the Gambhar, with cultivated terraces, artificially made upon the mountain sides. Elevation above sea level, 2200 feet.

Deonthál.—Hill in Hindúr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 11′ N., long. 76° 53′ E. A peak of the Maláun range, celebrated as the site of a decisive engagement during the Gurkhá war of 1815. Lies 1¼ mile south of Maláun, between that fort and Sarajgarh, both of which were held by the Gurkhás in April 1815, when General Ochterlony advanced to reduce them. A detachment under Colonel Thompson occupied Deonthál, and repulsed, with great loss, a body of 2000 Gurkhás, who attacked their position. This engagement terminated the war, and the Gurkhás soon after ceded the Hill States.

Deoprayág.—Village in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 30° 8′ N., and long. 78° 39′ E., at the confluence of the ALAKNANDA and the BHAGIRATHI rivers; elevation above sea level, 2266 feet. Below the village the united stream takes the name of the GANGES, and the point of junction forms one of the five sacred halting-places in the pilgrimage which devout Hindus pay to Himáchal. The village is perched 100 feet above the water's edge, on the scarped side of a mountain, which rises behind it to a height of 800 feet. The great temple of Ramá Chandra, built of massive uncemented masonry, stands upon a terrace in the upper part of the town, and consists of an irregular pyramid, capped by a white cupola with a golden ball and spire. The Bráhmans compute its age at 10,000 years. Religious ablutions take place at three basins, excavated in the rock at the point of junction of the holy streams. An earthquake in 1803 shattered the temple and other buildings; but the damage was subsequently repaired through the munificence of Daulat Ráo Sindhia. The inhabitants consist chiefly of Bráhmans from the Deccan.

Deora Kot.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzabad) District, Oudh; 16 miles from the town of Faizábád, on the Oudh and Rohilkhand line of railway. Pop. (1869), 2271 Hindus and 191 Muhammadans—total, 2462. Temple to Mahádeo.

Deori (*Devarí*).—Ancient chiefship attached to Ráipur District Central Provinces; on the west of the Jonk river. Consists of 50 villages the principal of which is situated in lat. 21° 16′ 30″ N., and long. 82 46′ 30″ E. The chief is a Binjwár.

Deorí.—Chief town of a tract of the same name in Ságar (Saugo District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 23′ N., and long. 79° E., about 37 miles south of Ságar, on the Narsinhpur road, at elevation of 1700 feet above sea level. Pop. (1876), 3994, mai agricultural. Deorí is sometimes spoken of as Bára Deorí, and w formerly called Rámgarh Ujárgarh. The present name was deriv from a temple still largely resorted to. Weekly market; coarse wh cloth is manufactured for export. The fort, situated to the west of town, and still in tolerable preservation, must once have been a plac great strength. The walls enclose a space of 3 acres, formerly cove

with buildings, but now a complete waste. It was built, as it now stands, about 1713, by Durgá Sinh, the son of Himmat Sinh, the Gond ruler of Gaurjhámar, at the cost of a *lákh* of rupees (say £10,000), and taken from him in 1741 by the troops of the Peshwá. Under the Marhattás, the town flourished. In 1767, the Peshwá bestowed Deori and the Pánch Mahál, or five tracts attached to it, rent free on Dhonda Dattátraya, a Marhattá *pandit*, whose descendant, Rámchandra Ráo, still held it in 1817. In 1813, Zálím Sinh, Rájá of Garhákola, plundered the town, and set it on fire; on which occasion 30,000 persons perished. In 1817, the Peshwá ceded Ságar to the British Government, but during the next year the Pánch Mahál, with Deorí, were made over to Sindhia, Rámchandra Ráo receiving another estate in compensation. In 1825, they were again transferred by Sindhia to the British Government for management, and were finally made part of British territory by the treaty of 1860. In 1857, soon after the beginning of the Mutiny, a Gond named Durjan Sinh, who owned Sinhpur and other villages near Deorí, seized the fort with a band of rebels; but about a month later he was expelled by Safdár Husáin, the officer in charge of the Deorí police. Deorí has a dispensary, police station, District post office, customs station, and 3 schools—2 for boys and 1 for girls.

Deoria.—Southern *tahsíl* of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of an almost unbroken plain. Area, 869 square miles, of which 603 were cultivated; pop. (1872), 454,495; land revenue, £40,998; total Government revenue, £45,008; rental paid by cultivators, £98,495; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 5¾d.

Deosár.—Town in Jáipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána, situated on the road from Agra to Ajmere; lat. 26° 51′ N., long. 76° 23′ E. Described by Thornton as a town of considerable size, built on one side of a rocky hill, nearly 4 miles in circumference, and containing the State prison. The town is in a decaying state, and is surrounded by a half-ruined wall. Contains many handsome temples and tombs, but all crumbling away from neglect.

Deotígarh.—Mountain range in the Province of Assam, forming the south-eastern boundary of the Nágá Hills District. It contains the sources of the Barák, Dáyang, and Makru rivers. The lower slopes project in table-shaped masses with grassy slopes.

Derá.—Southern *tahsíl* of Kángra District, Punjab. Area, 494 square miles; pop. (1868), 126,294; persons per square mile, 255.

Derá Ghází Khán.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab (Panjáb), lying between 28° 27′ and 31° 14′ 30″ N. lat., and between 69° 35′ and 70° 59′ E. long.; with an area, according to the Parliamentary returns for 1876-77, of 4740 square miles,

and a population (1868) of 308,840 persons. Derá Ghází Khán is the southernmost District of the Deráját Division. It is bounded on the north by Derá Ismáil Khán, on the west by the Suláimán Hills, on the south by Jacobábád in Sind, and on the east by the Indus. The administrative headquarters are at the town of DERA GHAZI KHAN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Derá Ghází Khán consists of a narrow strip of sandy lowland, between the Suláimán Hills and the bank of the river Indus. On the west, the mountains rise in a succession of knife-like ridges towards the hilly plateau beyond the frontier, and give shelter to independent tribes of Baluchi origin. From their feet, the plain slopes gradually eastward, in a dreary and monotonous level only broken from time to time by sandy undulations, and composed of a rigid clay which requires profuse irrigation before it can yield to the arts of the cultivator. Numerous torrents pour down from the hilly barrier on the west, but soon sink into the thirsty soil, or are checked by artificial embankments for the water supply of the surrounding fields. The Kaha and the Sanghar alone possess perennial streams, all the minor water-courses drying up entirely during the summer months. The whole western half of the District, known as the Pachád, is then totally deserted, and its Baluchi inhabitants seek pasturage for their flocks either among the hills beyond the border, or in the moister lands which fringe the bank of the Indus. Water can only be procured from wells in this arid region at a depth of 250 or 300 feet. Between the Pachád and the river, a barren belt of desert sand intervenes—without water, without inhabitants, and without vegetation. But as the plain still slopes eastward, it reaches at last a level at which the waters from the Indus begin to fertilize the sandy soil. The country rapidly assumes a fresher and greener aspect, a few trees again appear upon the scene, and human habitations grow more and more numerous as the cultivated plain approaches the Indus itself. Much of the land in the lower slopes lies open to direct inundation from its floods, while the higher tracts are irrigated by canals and wells. This portion of the District, known as the Sind, comprises the greater part of the whole cultivated area, and has also considerable tracts of jungle under the management of the Forest Department. Date palms grow luxuriantly in picturesque groves, and shelter the town and cantonment of Derá Ghází Khán with their pleasant shade. With these exceptions, however, the District is almost destitute of trees, and even in the most favoured parts the jungle seldom attains a height of more than 12 or 15 feet. The wood serves chiefly as fuel for the steamers on the Indus. The principal peak of the Suláimán mountains reaches an elevation of 7462 feet. The most important passes are those of Sanghar, Sakhi-Sarwár, Kaliá, Chháchár, and Sori: they are all held by

independent Baluchís, responsible to the British Government for the proper police duties of their respective highways.

History.—The tract between the Suláimán mountains and the Indus appears to have been the seat of a Hindu population from a very early date. Many towns in the District have close associations with ancient Hindu legend, and especially with the mythical Punjab hero, Rasálu. Ruins still exist at Sanghar, and elsewhere, which probably date back to a period earlier than the Muhammadan invasion of India; while tradition connects the surrounding country with the ancient native kingdom of Múltán (Mooltan). Like the rest of that territory, it fell in the year 711 A.D. before the young Arab conqueror Muhammad Kásim, the first Musalmán invader of India. Throughout the period of Muhammadan supremacy, the District continued to rank as an outlying appanage of the Múltán Province. About the year 1450 A.D., a branch of the Lodí family, connected with the dynasty which sat upon the throne of Delhi, succeeded in establishing an independent government at Kin and Sítpur; the former town lying in the southern portion of the present District, while the latter, by a change in the shifting channel of the Indus, has since been transferred to the eastern bank of the river. The Náhir dynasty thus established, originally extended their dominions for a considerable distance in the Deráját; but as time went on, their power became circumscribed by the encroachments of Baluchí mountaineers upon the western frontier. Malik Sohráb, the first of these hardy invaders, was soon followed by the Mahráni chieftain Háji Khán, whose son, Ghází Khán, gave his name to the city which he founded, and to the modern District which lies around it. This event must have taken place before the end of the 15th century. The new rulers at first held their dominions as vassals of the Múltán Government, but in the third generation they found themselves strong enough to throw off the yoke and proclaim their independence of the Lodí court. Eighteen princes of the same family held successively the lower Deráját, and bore alternately the names of their ancestors Háji and Ghází Khán. In the extreme north, however, the Náhir rulers continued to maintain their position until the early part of the 18th century. Under the house of Akbar, the dynasty of Ghází Khán made a nominal submission to the Mughal Empire; but though they paid a quit-rent, and accepted their lands in *jágír*, their practical independence remained undisturbed. During the decline of the Delhi court, and the rise of the rival Duráni Empire, the country west of the Indus came into the hands of Nádir Sháh in 1739. The twentieth successor of Ghází Khán then sat upon the throne of his barren principality; but having made submission to the new suzerain, he was duly confirmed in the possession of his family estates. He died shortly after, however, leaving no heirs; and Derá Ghází Khán became once more, in name at

least, an integral portion of the Múltán Province. The date of this event, though by no means free from doubt, may be placed in or near the year 1758. About the same time, the District appears to have been overrun and conquered by the Kalhora kings of Sind, whose relations with the feudatories of Ahmad Sháh in this portion of their dominions are far from clear. In any case, Ahmad Sháh's authority would seem to have been restored about 1770 by one Mahmúd Gújar, an active and enterprising governor, who did good service in excavating canals and bringing the waste land into cultivation. A series of Afghán rulers succeeded, under the Duráni Emperors; but this period was much disturbed by internecine warfare amongst the Biluch clans, who now held the whole District. Before long, all semblance of order disappeared, and a reign of anarchy set in, which only terminated with British annexation and the introduction of our firm and peaceable Government. Canals fell into disrepair; cultivation declined; the steady and industrious amongst the peasantry emigrated to more prosperous tracts; and the whole District sank into a condition more wretched and desolate than that which had prevailed up to the accession of Ghází Khán, three centuries before. Meanwhile, the Síkh power had been rising in the Punjab proper, and culminated under Ranjít Sinh in a great and consolidated empire. In 1819, the aggressive Mahárájá extended his conquests in this direction beyond the Indus, and annexed the southern portion of the present District. Sádik Muhammad Khán, Nawáb of Baháwalpur, received the newly-acquired territory as a fief, on payment of an annual tribute to Lahore. In 1827, the Nawáb overran the northern portion of the District, all of which passed under the suzerainty of the Síkh *darbár*. Three years later, however, in 1830, he was compelled to give up his charge in favour of General Ventura, the partisan leader of the Lahore forces. In 1832, the famous Sáwan Mal of Múltán (*see* MULTAN DISTRICT) took over the District in farm; and his son Múlráj continued in possession until the outbreak of hostilities with the British in 1848. At the close of the second Síkh war in the succeeding year, Derá Ghází Khán passed, with the remainder of the Punjab Province, into the hands of our Government. Since that period, an active and vigilant administration has preserved the District from any more serious incident than the occasiona occurrence of a frontier raid. The wild hill-tribes have been brough into comparative submission, while the restoration of the canals has onc more made tillage profitable, and largely increased the number of ir habitants. The Mutiny of 1857 found Derá Ghází Khán so peacefull disposed that the protection of the frontier and the civil station coul be safely entrusted to a home levy of 600 men; while the greater pa of the regular troops were withdrawn for service in the field elsewher On the whole, the District may be cited as a striking instance of tl

prosperity and security afforded by a strong but benevolent Government in a naturally barren tract, formerly desolated by border strife and internal anarchy.

Population.—In 1854, the number of inhabitants was returned at 238,964. In 1868, it had reached a total of 308,840, showing an increase for the fourteen years of 69,876 persons, or 29·24 per cent. The Census in the last-named year, taken over an area of 4950 square miles, disclosed 380 villages or townships, and an aggregate number of 62,139 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 62·39; villages per square mile, ·07; houses per square mile, 12·55; persons per village, 812; persons per house, 4·97. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 170,252; females, 138,588; proportion of males, 55·13 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were 38,467 Hindus, 264,527 Muhammadans, 1124 Síkhs, and 4722 'others.' The Musalmán element thus amounted to 85·65 per cent. of the whole population, while the percentage of Hindus and Síkhs was only 12·45 and 0·36 respectively. Among the Muhammadans, 162,519 are classed as Játs, a term which appears to include all the aboriginal tribes, once Hindu, but long since converted to the faith of the dominant races from the west, who have more recently settled in the District. Foremost among the latter in social and political importance stand the Baluchís, who in 1868 numbered 92,590, or 29 per cent. of the whole population. A few Patháns (3011) and Sayyids (5324) represent the later colonists in the District. The geographical boundary between the Pathán and Baluchí races in the hills nearly corresponds with the northern limit of the District; and it naturally follows that the Baluchís are more numerous in Derá Ghází Khán than in any other portion of the Punjab. The settlers, in the western half of the District especially, retain in a very marked manner the tribal organization of their native hills. Each clan owes allegiance to a hereditary chieftain (*tumandár*), assisted by a council of head-men who represent the subdivisions of the clan. Though shorn of certain monarchical prerogatives by the necessity of submission to an alien rule, the influence of the *tumandárs* still ranks paramount for good or for evil; and our Government has found it desirable to rule the clans through their powerful instrumentality. They receive a regular official recognition, and enjoy certain assignments of land revenue, fixed in 1873 at the sum of £3600. The Baluchí, inured to toil, and endowed with great powers of endurance, has a special hatred of control, and can scarcely be induced to enlist in our army, or to take any regular service. The mass of the population live in small hamlets, scattered over the face of the country; and a vast majority subsist by agricultural or pastoral pursuits. The District contains five municipal towns, only two of which have a population exceeding 5000—DERA GHAZI KHAN, 20,123; DAJAL, 6335;

JAMPUR, 4209; RAJANPUR, 3556; and MITHANKOT, 3347. DERA GHAZI KHAN, the civil and military headquarters, ranks as a trading mart of considerable activity. Rájanpur, in the south of the District, 73 miles from headquarters, is the station of an Assistant Commissioner and of a regiment of cavalry. Mithánkot, once a busy commercial centre, has now sunk into the position of a quiet country town.

Agriculture.—The cultivated area of Derá Ghází Khán has increased enormously since the introduction of British rule. Early returns show the total area under tillage at 261,065 acres in 1849, and at 276,981 acres in 1859; while the Settlement Report for 1871-72 gives a total of 1,063,680 acres, of which 427,599 received artificial irrigation. The staple crops of the District consist of wheat and *joár*. The former ranks as the principal produce of the *rabí* or spring harvest in the Sind; the latter is grown as a *kharíf* or autumn crop in the Pachád. Barley, poppy, gram, peas, turnips, and mustard also cover a considerable area in the *rabí*; while rice, pulses, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and oil-seeds form the chief supplementary items of the *kharíf*. Throughout the whole District, regular cultivation depends entirely upon artificial irrigation, derived from three sources,—the hill streams, the wells, and the inundation canals from the Indus. The last begin to fill, in prosperous years, towards the end of June, when the sowings at once commence. The Pachád can only produce a good autumn crop if the hill torrents fill some time between May and August; but when rain does not fall until September, the cultivator abandons all hope of the *kharíf*, and sows his land with wheat or some other spring staple. The number of main channels drawing their supplies directly from the Indus is 15, two of which belong to private proprietors, while the remainder are controlled and kept in order by the State. A well, unaided by canal supplies, suffices to irrigate an average of 10 acres; with the assistance of a canal, it can water an area of 30 acres. In the latter case, however, only half the land is cultivated at a time, and each field lies fallow after every second crop. The average out-turn of wheat or *joár* per acre amounts to 7½ cwts.; that of cotton to 1 cwt. 14 lbs. of cleaned fibre. The District has no village communities in the sense which the term usually implies in India. The villages consist of holdings classified into mere artificial groups for purposes of revenue collection. The only bond of union between the proprietors consists in their joint responsibility for the payment of taxes. The proportion of land belonging to each proprietor is stated by wells or fractions of a well in the Sind, and by *bandhs* or irrigation embankments in the Pachád. Eight wells form a large holding, while one-fourth of a well would be the smallest amount capable of supporting a cultivating proprietor. Rents usually take the shape of a charge in kind upon the produce. Tenants-at-will pay from one-seventh to one

half the gross out-turn; a quarter may be regarded as the fair average. Agricultural labourers receive their wages in kind, to the value of from 4½d. to 6d. per diem. Skilled workmen in the towns earn as much as 2s. per diem. Prices ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1876:—Wheat, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; barley and *joár*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; gram, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Petty Hindu merchants, settled in almost every village, entirely control the trade of the District. Their dealings centre chiefly in the commercial town of Derá Ghází Khán. The Indus forms the high road of traffic. Mithánkot, just below its junction with the united stream of the Punjab rivers, was long the mercantile capital of the District; but a diversion of the navigable channel 5 miles to the east has turned the course of traffic to the headquarters town. Thence indigo, opium, dates, wheat, cotton, barley, millet, *ghí*, and hides are despatched down the river to Sukkur (Sakkar) and Karáchi (Kurrachee). The annual value of the opium exported amounts to £2500; that of indigo probably exceeds £10,000. The grain of all kinds may be estimated at £60,000. Sugar, gram, woollen goods, English piece-goods and broadcloth, metals, salt, and spices form the principal items of the import trade. Little traffic at present exists with the country beyond the hills, owing to the turbulence of the independent Baluchí tribes. Commercial importance has lately attached to the annual religious gathering at the shrine of a Muhammadan saint, Sakhi Sarwár. The chief means of communication consist of—the Frontier military road, which passes through the District from north to south and strikes the Indus at Mithánkot; the river road from Derá Ghází Khán to Sukkur; and the road from the headquarters station to Múltán, crossing the Indus at the Kureshi ferry. None of these are metalled, but they cross the canals and hill-streams for the most part by means of bridges. The total length of unmetalled road within the District amounted in 1872-73 to 1223 miles.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with two Assistant and one extra Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and medical officers. The total amount of revenue (excluding income tax) raised in the District in 1861-62 was returned at £37,182. In 1875-76, it had reached the sum of £46,681. The land tax forms the principal item of receipt, producing in 1875-76 a total of £38,800, or more than four-fifths of the whole. The remaining items consist of stamps and excise. During the same year, the District contained 16 civil and revenue judges of all grades. The regular police force numbers 500 men, or 1 to every 616 of the population. The District jail at Derá Ghází Khán, a large and substantial building, had a daily average number of 352 prisoners in

the three years ending 1872. The military force maintained in the District for the protection of the frontier comprises 2 regiments of infantry and 2 of cavalry. One regiment of cavalry and one company of infantry are stationed at Rájanpur; and the remainder at Derá Ghází Khán. A force of mounted militia, levied among the Baluchi tribes of the Pachád, assists the regular troops in the maintenance of order. In 1875-76, the District had only 39 schools, with a total roll of 1767 scholars. These figures show one school to every 121 square miles of the area, with a proportion of 5·7 pupils to every thousand of the population. In 1872-73, the sum spent on education, including grants-in-aid, amounted to £1206. The five municipalities of Derá Ghází Khán, Jámpur, Rájanpur, Mithánkot, and Dájal had an aggregate revenue in 1875-76 of £3396, or 1s. 10¾d. per head of the population (36,539) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—Derá Ghází Khán cannot be considered an unhealthy District, although the heat in summer often reaches an intense degree. The annual rainfall for the eight years ending 1874, averaged only 6·6 inches, the maximum during that period being 10·8 inches in 1869-70. Fever of the ordinary type prevails in August and September, when cold nights alternate with hot days. In June and July, a scorching and unhealthy wind sweeps down from the hills into the Pachád. Four charitable dispensaries gave relief in 1875 to 42,815 persons, of whom 969 were in-patients.

Derá Ghází Khán.—*Tahsíl* of Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab, consisting of a narrow strip of land between the Indus and the Sulámán Mountains. Lat. 29° 36′ to 30° 30′ 30″ N., and long. 70° 11′ to 70° 59′ E.; area, 1923 square miles; pop. (1868), 136,376; persons per square mile, 70·91; number of villages, 164.

Derá Ghází Khán.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 3′ 57″ N., and long. 70° 49′ 8″ E. Pop. (1868), 20,123, comprising 8850 Hindus, 10,699 Muhammadans, 328 Síkhs, 52 Christians, and 194 'others.' Pleasantly situated in lat. 30° 3′ 57″ N., and long. 70° 49′ E., about 2 miles west of the present bed of the Indus, which once flowed past its site. The Kasturi Canal skirts its eastern border, fringed with thickly planted gardens of mango trees; while *gháts* line the banks, thronged in summer by numerous bathers. Above the town stands a massive dam, erected in 1858 as a protection against inundations. A mile to the west lie the Civil Lines, and the cantonments adjoin the houses of the District officials. The original station stood to the east of the town, but disappeared during the flood of 1857. The city owes its foundation to Ghází Khán Mahráni, a Baluch settle in the District, who made himself independent in this remote trac about the year 1475. It has continued ever since to be the seat

local administration under the successive Governments which have ruled the surrounding country. (*See* DERA GHAZI KHAN DISTRICT.) The court-house occupies the site of Ghází Khán's garden; while the *tahsíli* and police office replace an ancient fort, levelled at the time of the English annexation. The other public buildings include a town hall, school-house, dispensary, staging bungalow, and post office. A handsome *bázár* has several good shops, built on a uniform plan. Many large and striking mosques adorn the town, the chief being those of Ghází Khán, Abdul Jawár, and Chútá Khán. The Síkhs converted three of them into temples of their own faith during their period of supremacy. Two Muhammadan saints are also honoured with shrines, and the earlier religion has four temples dedicated to Hindu gods. The trade of Derá Ghází Khán is not extensive: exports—indigo, opium, dates, wheat, cotton, barley, millet, *ghí*, and hides; imports—sugar, Kábul fruits, English piece-goods, metal, salt, and spices. Silk and cotton manufacture, formerly thriving, has now declined. Weekly fair on the banks of the canal during the summer months. Ordinary garrison, 1 cavalry and 2 infantry regiments of the Punjab Frontier force. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £2294, or 2s. 4$\frac{7}{8}$d. per head of population (19,092) within municipal limits.

Derá Ismáil Khán.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab (Panjáb), lying between 30° 35′ 45″ and 32° 33′ N. lat., and between 70° 14′ and 72° 2′ E. long.; with an area of 7096 square miles, and a population (1868) of 394,864 persons. Derá Ismáil Khán forms the central District of the Deráját Division. It is bounded on the north by Bannu, on the east by Jhang and Sháhpur, on the south by Derá Ghází Khán and Muzaffargarh, and on the west by the Suláimán Mountains. The administrative headquarters are at the town of DERA ISMAIL KHAN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Derá Ismáil Khán, a purely artificial creation for administrative purposes, comprises two distinct tracts of country, stretching from the Suláimán Mountains across the valley of the Indus far into the heart of the Sind Sagar Doáb. The channel of the great river thus divides it into nearly equal sections, each of which possesses a history and physical characteristics of its own. To the west, the Suláimán Mountains rise barren and precipitous above the hard alluvial plain, ascending in a series of parallel ridges, which culminate nearly opposite Derá Ismáil Khán in the two peaks of Takht-i-Suláimán, 11,295 and 11,070 feet respectively above the level of the sea. The range is the home of various independent tribes, responsible to our Government for the maintenance of peace upon the frontier, and the prevention of robbery among the passes. Numerous mountain torrents score the hillsides, and cut for themselves deep and intricate ravines in the plain below; but little of their water reaches the Indus even in times

of heavy flood. Only one among them, the Gomál or Lúni, is a perennial stream. On the north, some low and stony spurs project into the valley, till finally the Shaikh-budin range closes the view upward and separates this District from that of Bannu. Near the Indus, a third rugged group, the Khisor Hills, intervenes between the Shaikh-budin system and the river, which is overhung by its eastern face in a precipitous mass, some 3000 feet above the sea. From this point the plain stretches southward along the river-side, till it merges in the similar tract of DERA GHAZI KHAN DISTRICT. Sloping downwards from the feet of the Suláimán range through an intermediate barren belt, it gradually attains a lower level, at which percolation from the Indus makes its influence felt. Cultivation soon becomes general, and the soil of this lowland tract supports a population of considerable density. In the summer months, the river, rising 6 feet above its cold-weather level, submerges the country for 11 miles inland; while canals and natural channels convey its fertilizing waters to a still greater distance from the main stream on either side. The principal channel shifts from year to year, causing great alteration in the conditions of agriculture. The eastern or Sind Ságar portion of the District consists in part of a similar irrigated lowland, lying along the edge of the Indus. The limit of this favoured tract is marked by an abrupt bank, the outer margin of a high plateau, the Thal, which stretches across the Doáb to the valley of the Jhelum (Jhílam). Below this bank, wide patches of closely cultivated soil, interspersed with stretches of rank grass, or broken by occasional clumps of trees, meet the eye; but above appears the ordinary monotony of a Punjab desert, extending in a level surface of sand, or rolling into rounded hillocks and long undulating dunes. Yet the soil beneath is naturally rich; and unless the rainfall entirely fails, a yearly crop of grass pushes its way through the sandy covering, and suffices to support vast flocks of sheep and cattle. Patches of scrubby jungle here and there diversify the scene; while the coarse vegetation of the general surface affords excellent fodder for camels. Cultivation, however, can only be carried on by means of laborious artificial irrigation from deep wells, and nothing but the brave and steady industry of the inhabitants renders life possible in this sterile region.

History.—The massive ruins of two ancient forts, one in this District, the other just within the borders of Bannu, overlooking the Indus from projecting spurs of the northern hills, alone bear witness to an early civilisation in the upper Deráját. Both bear the name of Káfir Kot, probably connecting their origin with the Græco-Bactrian period of Punjab history. The plain portion of the District contains none of those ancient mounds which elsewhere mark the sites of ruined cities. But the earliest traditions current in this remote quarter refer to its later colonization by immigrants from the south, who found the count

entirely unoccupied. The Baluchí settlers, under Málik Sohráb, arrived in the District towards the end of the 15th century. His two sons, Ismáil Khán and Fateh Khán, founded the towns which still bear their names. The Hot family, as this Baluchí dynasty was termed, in contradistinction to the Mahráni house of Derá Ghází Khán, held sway over the upper Deráját for 300 years, with practical independence, until reduced to vassalage by Ahmad Sháh Duráni about 1750 A.D. Beyond the Indus, too, the first important colony settled under the auspices of another Baluchí chieftain, whose descendants, surnamed Jaskáni, placed their capital for nearly three centuries at Bhakkar in the eastern lowlands of the great river. Farther south, the family of Ghází Khán established several settlements, the chief of which gathered round the town of Leiah. About the year 1759, the Kháns of Leiah were involved in the conquest of the parent family by the Kalhora kings of Sind. Shortly afterwards, Ahmad Sháh Duráni became supreme over the whole of the present District. In 1792, Sháh Zamán, then occupying the Duráni throne, conferred the government of this dependency, together with the title of Nawáb, upon Muhammad Khán, an Afghán of the Saduzái tribe, related to the famous governors of Múltán (Mooltan). Armed with the royal grant, Muhammad Khán made himself master of almost all the District, and built himself a new capital at Mankera. He died in 1815, after a prosperous reign of 23 years. His grandson, Sher Muhammad Khán, succeeded to the principality, under the guardianship of his father, the late Nawáb's son-in-law. Ranjít Sinh, however, was then engaged in consolidating his power by the subjection of the lower Punjab. Nothing daunted by the difficulties of a march across the desert, the great Síkh leader advanced upon Mankerá sinking wells as he approached for the supply of his army. After a siege of 25 days, the fortress surrendered, and the whole Sind Ságar Doáb lay at the mercy of the conqueror. The young Nawáb retired beyond the Indus to Derá Ismáil Khán, retaining his dominions in the Deráját for fifteen years, subject to a quit-rent to the Síkhs, but otherwise holding the position of a semi-independent prince. His tribute, however, fell into arrears; and in 1836, Náo Nihál Sinh crossed the Indus at the head of a Síkh army, and annexed the remaining portion of the District to the territories of Lahore. The Nawáb received an assignment of revenue for his maintenance, still retained by his descendants, together with their ancestral title. Under Síkh rule, the Cis-Indus tract formed part of the Mooltan Province, administered by Sáwan Mal and his son Múlráj (*see* MULTAN DISTRICT). The upper Deráját, on the other hand, was farmed out to the Diwán Laki Nál, from whom it passed to his son, Daulat Rái. British influence first made itself felt in 1847, when Lieutenant (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, being despatched to the frontier as Political Officer under the Council of Regency at Lahore,

effected a summary assessment of the land tax. In the succeeding year, levies from Derá Ismáil Khán followed Edwardes to Múltán, and served loyally throughout the war that ended in the annexation of the Punjab. The District then passed quietly under British rule. On the first subdivision of the Province, Derá Ismáil Khán became the headquarters of a District, which also originally included the trans-Indus portion of Bannu; Leiah was erected into the centre of a second District east of the river. The present arrangement took effect in 1861, Bannu being entrusted to a separate officer, and the southern half of the Leiah District being incorporated with Derá Ismáil Khán. In 1857, some traces of a mutinous spirit appeared amongst the troops in garrison at the headquarters station; but the promptitude and vigour of the Deputy Commissioner, Colonel Coxe, loyally aided by a hasty levy of Muhammadan cavalry, averted the danger without serious difficulty. In 1870, the District attracted for a time a melancholy attention through the death of Sir H. Durand, Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, who was struck by an arch and precipitated from his elephant as he entered a gateway in the town of Tánk. His remains were interred at Derá Ismáil Khán.

Population.—The changes of territory in the cis-Indus portion of the District since the Census of 1855, render it impossible to institute a comparison between that enumeration and the returns of 1868. In the trans-Indus subdivisions, however, which remain substantially unaltered in extent, a considerable increase took place between those dates. The Census of 1868 was taken over a total area of 7096 square miles, and it disclosed a total population of 394,864 persons, distributed among 716 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 85,100 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 56·64; villages per square mile, 0·10; houses per square mile, 11·97; persons per village, 551; persons per house, 4·64. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 212,734; females, 182,130; proportion of males, 53·88 per cent. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Derá Ismáil Khán contains an essentially Muhammadan population, as might be expected from the late date and quarter of its colonization. The Census showed 338,387 Musalmáns, 48,756 Hindus, 1587 Síkhs, and 6134 'others.' Amongst the Hindus the Aroras form by far the largest element, numbering as many as 42,0 persons; they comprise the principal trading classes of the District, few wealthy families being found in the larger towns, while the major carry on business as petty dealers in corn or money throughout the country villages. The mass of the agricultural population are J who profess the Muhammadan religion, but are of Hindu origin. Th ancestors, according to tradition, accompanied the Baluchí chieftains the first colonization of the District. The Patháns occupy a stri

country extending immediately below the Suláimán Hills, throughout their whole length from north to south. Most of them belong to inconspicuous tribes, the highest in social position being connected with the Saduzái Nawábs of Derá Ismáil Khán. Seven towns contained a population exceeding 5000 in 1868—namely, DERA ISMAIL KHAN, KULACHI, LEIAH, KHAROR, BHAKKAR, PANIALA, and TAKWARA. The two latter, however, are purely agricultural villages, and in the remainder, also, a large proportion of the population inhabits outlying hamlets. The municipalities, with their populations, as ascertained by a special Census taken in 1875, rank as follows:—(1) DERA ISMAIL KHAN, 20,002; (2) KULACHI, 7865; (3) LEIAH, 5686; (4) BHAKKAR, 4803; (5) TANK, 3186; (6) KHAROR, 2766; (7) KOT SULTAN, 1386; (8) MANKERA, 1259. Tank is the capital of an Afghán Principality till lately ruled by its semi-independent Nawáb, but now brought directly under British administration. The sanitarium of SHAIKH-BUDIN, at an elevation of 4516 feet above sea level, occupies the highest point in the hills which separate this District from Bannu.

Agriculture.—Throughout all portions of Derá Ismáil Khán District, tillage depends entirely upon artificial irrigation. The hill streams render but scanty service in this respect, their volume being speedily lost in the intricate ravines which they have cut for themselves through the hard clay of the submontane tract. Nevertheless, they afford to the Afgháns of the border a chance of raising some few crops, sufficient for their own frugal subsistence. In the low-lying lands within the influence of the Indus, canals and wells offer an easy and abundant supply of water; but in the Thal or Sind Ságar uplands, wells can only be worked at an enormous depth. Even here, however, the indomitable energy of the Ját cultivators succeeds in producing harvests not inferior to those of the richest alluvial tracts. The State does not maintain any irrigation works in this District; but returns compiled in 1873-74 show a total of 422,526 acres artificially watered by private enterprise. The area cultivated without irrigation amounted to 95,337 acres, giving a grand total of 517,863 acres under cultivation. The remainder of the District falls under the following heads:—Grazing lands, 364,864 acres; cultivable waste, 1,353,846 acres; uncultivable waste, 2,305,227 acres. It would thus appear that more than two-thirds of the available soil has not yet been brought under tillage. Wheat and barley form the staple products of the *rabí* or spring harvest, while the common millets, *joár* and *bájra*, constitute the principal *kharíf* or autumn crops. Sugar and tobacco are grown in the lowlands of the Indus, but not in sufficient quantities to meet the local demand. In 1872-73, the areas sown with each staple were returned as follows:—Wheat, 137,410 acres; barley, 18,812 acres; oil-seeds, 14,264 acres; millets, 55,812 acres; cotton, 15,291 acres. Throughout the District, village communities of the

ordinary types prevail, though many of them, especially among the Patháns of the frontier, appear to have adopted the communal system only as a consequence of British fiscal arrangements. Elsewhere, in the Ját villages, the existence of immemorial common lands attests the indigenous nature of the institution. Rents are universally paid in kind, at rates which range as high as one-half the gross produce. Unskilled labourers in towns received from 6d. to 9d. per diem in 1875-76; while skilled workmen obtained from 9d. to 1s. Prices on the whole have rather fallen than risen of late years. The chief food-stuffs were quoted at the following rates on 1st January 1876:—Wheat, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; barley, 46 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 5¼d. per cwt.; gram, 41 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 8¾d. per cwt.; *joár*, 45 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 5¾d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 41 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 8¾d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—One of the main streams of caravan traffic between India and Khorásán traverses the District twice a year. The Povindah merchants cross the Gomal Pass between Tánk and Kuláchi during the month of October, and, after passing on into India proper, return again in April or May. They seldom, however, unpack any portion of their wares in the local markets. The traffic of the District centres in the towns of Derá Ismáil Khán, Leiah, and Bhakkar. Wheat, millet, and wool are thence despatched down the Indus to Múltán (Mooltan), Sukkur, or Karáchi (Kurrachee), while Indian and English piece-goods form the staples of import trade. Hides from Sháhpur and Jhang, salt from Kohát and Pind Dádan Khán, and fancy ware of various kinds from Múltán (Mooltan) and Sukkur (Sakkar) also figure upon the list of entries. Derá Ismáil Khán and many villages have considerable manufactures of coarse cloth for domestic use. The main channels of communication consist of—the Frontier military road, which skirts the base of the hills from north to south; the Múltán and Ráwal Pindi road, which follows the high right bank of the Indus, *viâ* Kot Sultán, Leiah, Kharor, and Bhakkar; and the line from Derá Ismáil Khán to Jhang, and thence to Chíchawatni on the Lahore and Múltán (Mooltan) Railway. Though unbridged and unmetalled, they are all practicable in ordinary seasons by wheeled conveyances or artillery. The total length of roads within the District in 1875-76 amounted to 1538 miles.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with one Assistant and one extra Assistant Commissioner, besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and medical officers. The total amount of revenue raised in the District during the year 1875-76, was returned at £47,299; of which sum, £38,580, or more than four-fifths of the whole, was contributed by the land tax. A local revenue of about £5000 provides for objects of public utility within the District

itself. In 1875-76, Derá Ismáil Khán possessed 17 civil and revenue judges of all grades, 2 of whom were covenanted civilians. The regular police force in 1875 numbered 603 men, giving an average of 1 policeman to every 11·76 square miles of area and every 654 of the population. This force was supplemented by a body of 487 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*). The District jail at Derá Ismáil Khán received a total number of 1080 inmates in 1872; while the daily average of prisoners for that and the two preceding years was 342·55. Education is rather more forward than in the country immediately to the south, but still remains at a low standard. The District contained 26 schools supported or aided by the Government in 1876, with an aggregate roll of 2105 scholars. The Church Missionary Society has an educational station at Derá Ismáil Khán, in receipt of a grant-in-aid from Government; the number of pupils in 1873 amounted to 308. The total sum spent on education during the same year was returned at £896. The troops quartered in the District for the defence of the Frontier, comprise 2 regiments of infantry, 1 regiment of cavalry, and a battery of field artillery, amounting in all to 2200 rank and file of all arms, with 4 guns. The headquarters are at Derá Ismáil Khán. A small force of local militia supplements the regular troops in the outpost stations upon the Frontier. The 8 municipal towns had an aggregate revenue in 1875-76 of £4504, being at the rate of 1s. 11d. per head of the population within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—According to a private record kept at Derá Ismáil Khán for the three years ending 1871, the maximum temperature in the shade during that period was 110·30° in June. 1869, and the minimum 37·25° in December of the same year. Up to the middle of May, the climate is tolerable for Europeans; but after that date, the season of fierce summer-heat sets in. The average annual rainfall for the eight years ending 1874 amounted to only 7·5 inches. The rainy season, or rather the period of occasional showers, occurs during the months of June, July, August, and September. Malarious fever, dysentery, and small-pox form the prevalent diseases of the District. The headquarters station, however, bears a good reputation from a sanitary point of view. Seven charitable dispensaries afforded relief in 1875 to 53,511 persons, of whom 1753 were in-patients.

Derá Ismáil Khán.—*Tahsíl* of Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, consisting of a narrow strip of land between the Suláimán Mountains and the Indus. Lat. 31° 20′ to 32° 33′ N., and long. 70° 33′ 30″ to 71° 25′ E.; area, 1827 square miles; pop. (1868), 101,922; persons per square mile, 55·78; number of villages, 226.

Derá Ismáil Khán.—Municipal town, cantonment, and administrative headquarters of Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 50′ N., long. 70° 55′ 44″ E.; pop. (1868), 24,906, comprising 8381 Hindus, 15,659

Muhammadans, 206 Síkhs, 224 Christians, and 436 'others.' Distant from the right bank of the Indus 4½ miles west, from Lahore 200 miles west, and from Múltán (Mooltan) 120 miles north-west. Founded in the end of the 15th century by the Baluch adventurer Malik Sohráb, who called the town after one of his sons. The original city was swept away by the Indus in 1823, and all the existing buildings are of quite modern construction. Stands on a level plain, so badly drained that pools of water collect for weeks after heavy rain, and many of the streets become impassable. Surrounded by a thin mud wall, with five gates, enclosing an area of about 500 acres. Tortuous and ill-ventilated alleys, especially in the Hindu quarter. The cantonment lies to the south-east of the city, and contains a total area of 4⅜ square miles. Lines exist for a regiment of Native cavalry, two regiments of Native infantry, and a battery of artillery. The cantonment also contains a church, staging bungalow, and swimming-bath. European detachments garrison the small fort of Akalgarh, half a mile from the north-west angle of the city. The civil station lies to the south of the native town, and contains the court-house, treasury, Commissioner's office, jail, police lines, post office, and dispensary. The English Church Mission has an important station, and supports a considerable school. In time of flood, the whole strip of land between the city or cantonments and the river is covered by the inundations. The trade of Derá Ismáil Khán ranks as of second-rate importance only, but some foreign traffic with Khorásán passes through in the course of transit. Povindah caravans traverse the town twice a year, on their road to and from India. Chief imports—English and native piece-goods, hides, salt, and fancy wares; principal exports—grain, wool, and *ghí*. Manufacture of scarves and inlaid wood-work. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £3017, or 3s. per head of population (20,002) within municipal limits.

Deráját.—A Division under a Commissioner in the Punjab, situated between 28° 27′ and 33° 15′ N. lat., and between 69° 35′ and 72° 2′ E., comprising the three Districts of DERA ISMAIL KHAN, DERA GHAZI KHAN, and BANNU, each of which see separately. Area, 15,007 square miles; pop. (1868), 991,251.

Derá Nának.—Municipal town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 8082, being 2747 Hindus, 3541 Muhammadans, 138 Síkhs, and 407 'others.' Lies in lat. 32° 2′ 15″ N., long. 75° 4′ E., on the banks of the river Rávi, 13 miles north-west of Batála. Bába Nának, the first Síkh Guru, settled and died at the village of Pakhoki, opposite the modern town; and his descendants, the Bedis, continued to reside upon the same spot until the encroaching river swept away their village. They then crossed the stream, and built a new town, which they called after the name of their holy ancestor. The majority of the inhabitants still consist of Bedis. Handsome

Síkh temple, dedicated to Bába Nának. A second temple, known as the Táli Sáhib, was carried away by an inundation in 1870. Considerable export of cotton and sugar. Police station, Anglo-vernacular school, post office. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £328, or 11d. per head of population (7199) within municipal limits.

Derápur.—South-western *tahsíl* of Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces; stretching inland from the banks of the Jumna, and traversed by the Bhognipur and Etáwah branches of the Ganges Canal. Area, 318 square miles, of which 186 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 123,558; land revenue, £25,442; total Government revenue, £27,987; rental paid by cultivators, £42,486; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 6d.

Derbend.—Military station in Hazára District, Punjab; lies in lat. 34° 18′ N., long. 72° 55′ E., on the left bank of the Indus, at the point where its stream expands on entering the plains. Near this point, in 1827, Sher Sinh, the Síkh commander, defeated Sayyid Ahmad, an Afghán fanatic who had excited a religious war against the Síkhs.

Deri Kot.—Town, Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* GHAIBI DERO.

Deri Shahán (or *Sháh Dheri*).—Village in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab. Lat. 33° 17′ N., and long. 72° 49′ 15″ E. Identified by General Cunningham with the ancient city of Taxila. The existing remains extend over an area of 6 square miles, and rank as the most interesting and extensive, and the best preserved memorials of antiquity in the whole Punjab Province. The number and size of the *stupas* and monasteries render them worthy of the greatest attention. The earliest inhabitants of the surrounding region appear to have been the Takkas, who originally held all the Sind Ságar Doáb; and from their name General Cunningham derives that of Taxila or Takshasila, which Arrian describes as 'a large and wealthy city, the most populous between the Indus and the Hydaspes' (or Jhelum). The city stood a few miles to the north of the Margala Pass, where several mounds still mark the sites of its principal buildings. Alexander rested his army at this point for three days, and was royally entertained by the reigning sovereign. The Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Fa Hian visited Taxila, as a place of peculiar sanctity, about the year 400 A.D. Again, in 630 and 643, his countryman and co-religionist, Hiouen Thsang, also made it a halting-place of his pilgrimage, but found the seat of Government removed to Kashmír. The ruins of Taxila consist of six separate portions. The mound of Bír, close to the modern rock-seated village of Deri Shahán, abounds in fragments of brick and pottery, and offers a rich mine of coins and gems for the antiquary. Hatiál, a fortified spur of the Margala range, probably formed the ancient citadel; it is enclosed by a ruined wall, and crowned by a large bastion or tower. Sir-Kap presents the appearance of a supplementary fortress,

united with the citadel by a wall of circumvallation. Kacha-Kot possibly gave shelter to the elephants and cattle during a siege. Bábar-Khána contains the remains of a *stupa*, which General Cunningham identifies with that of Asoka, mentioned by Hiouen Thsang. Besides all these massive works, a wide expanse, covered by monasteries or other religious buildings, stretches on every side from the central city to a considerable distance.

Dero Mohbat.—*Táluk* of the Tando Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind. Lat. 24° 58′ 15″ to 25° 19′ N., and long. 68° 32′ 30″ to 69° 20′ 45″ E.; area, 670 square miles; pop. (1872), 30,445; revenue (1873-74), £5014, of which £4610 were derived from imperial, and £404 from local funds.

Detanaw.—A small but once flourishing village in Angyi township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. At the close of the first Anglo-Burmese war, numbers of the inhabitants who had sided with the British escaped to Tenasserim, but the rest were massacred by the Burmese for their adherence to our cause. In the neighbourhood, there are the ruins of a large and very ancient pagoda.

Deulgáon Rájá.—Town in Buldána District, Berar. Lat. 20° N., long. 76° E.; population, according to the Census of 1867, 9296—by the Administration Report of 1876-77, 10,265. Bordered on the north by a small range of hills, and on the south by the small river Amni. The town was once fortified by a wall, now in ruins. The principal articles of trade are cotton and silk. There are about 250 families of weavers, and 15 of silk traders. The Sráwaks or Jain traders, who deal in cloth, are said to have come from the north about 300 years ago. The origin of the great Jádon family, a member of which founded Deulgáon, is uncertain. Lakhji Jádon Ráo gave his daughter Jijia to Sháhjí the son of Málojí; and in 1627 she became the mother of Sivají, the founder of the Marhattá Empire. Rásoji, a natural son of one of the Jádon family, gained for himself the title of founder of Deulgáon, by enlarging the town, which before was known as Deulwarí. The hereditary dues enjoyed by the family were confiscated in 1851, when a body of Arabs under the command of Bájí Ráo, then head of the family, engaged in a severe fight against the Haidarábád contingent. Bájí Ráo died a State prisoner in 1856. Of all the *dewasthâns* in Berar, that of Bálájí at Deulgáon, founded by the Jádon Rájás, is the most celebrated. At the annual fair held generally in October in honour of this deity, the offerings exceed a *lákh* of rupees, or £10,000, in value. At this time, food is supplied gratuitously to pilgrims and religious mendicants attending the festival.

Deulghát.—Town in Buldána District, Berar; situated in lat. 20° 31′ N., and long. 76° 10′ 30″ E., on the Penganga river. Pop. (1867) 3954. An ancient town,—formerly known as Deoli, a name probabl

derived from the numerous Hemár Panti temples, of which ruins still exist. Considerably augmented about 1700 A.D. by Aurangzeb; now of little importance.

Deválá (or *Nambalakod*).—Village in the Wynád, Malabar District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 28′ N., long. 76° 26′ E., about 8 miles from Gudalúr, at the head of a pass. It was here that the Wynád Gold Company first started operations, and recently the place has grown into importance as a coffee centre. When the transfer of this tract to the District of the Nílgiris has been completed, it is in contemplation to station a European magistrate at Deválá.

Devanhalli.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore. Area, 238 square miles; pop. (1871), 70,459; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £9748, or 3s. 3d. per cultivated acre. Among special crops are poppy, sugar, potatoes, and pumelos.

Devanhalli.—Municipal town in Bangalore District, Mysore; 23 miles by north road of Bangalore. Lat. 13° 15′ N., long. 77° 45′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 5771, composed of 5487 Hindus and 284 Muhammadans; municipal revenue (1874-75), £39; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. The former seat of a family of *poligárs*, who traced their descent from one of the refugees of the Morasu Wokkal tribe, who founded petty dynasties throughout Mysore in the 14th century. The last of the Gaudas, as the chiefs were called, was overthrown in 1748 by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. It was in the siege of Devanhalli, on this occasion, that Haidar Alí first gained distinction as a volunteer horseman, and it was here that his son Tipú was born. Haidar erected a fort of stone, which was captured by Lord Cornwallis in 1791. A weekly fair held on Wednesdays is attended by 500 persons. Headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Devaraydurga (‘*Hill of Deva Rájá*’).—Fortified hill in Túmkúr District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 22′ 30″ N., long. 77° 14′ 50″ E.; 9 miles east of Túmkúr; 3940 feet above sea level. It consists of 3 terraces, well supplied with water, and is now used as a summer retreat for the European officials of the District. It was captured from a local chieftain in 1608 by Deva Rájá, who built the present fortification. A small temple on the summit, dedicated to Durgá Narasinha, was erected by a subsequent Rájá of Mysore. It contains jewellery, etc. worth £1000, and is endowed with £85 a year. An annual festival is attended by 3000 persons.

Deví (literally ‘*The Goddess*,’ a title specially applied to the wife of Siva, the All-Destroyer).—River in Orissa, Bengal; formed by the junction in Cuttack District of the Great and Little Deví, two distributaries thrown off from the right bank of the Kátjurí, an important offshoot of the Mahánadi. The united stream passes into Purí District, and falls into the Bay of Bengal a few miles below the southern boundary of

Cuttack. The Deví forms the last part of the great network of channels into which the Kátjurí branch of the Mahánadi bifurcates; most of these streams reunite as they approach the sea, forming a broad and noble estuary, which, under the name of the Deví, enters the ocean in lat. 19° 58′ N., and long. 86° 25′ E. Some years ago, a permanent beacon was erected at the mouth; an excellent channel of from 16 to 24 feet is obtained for 7 miles inland from the entrance to the Deví. Above this distance the river shoals rapidly, and is only navigable by country craft. This harbour is unfortunately rendered almost useless by bars of sand across its mouth, which vary in depth from year to year. As soon as the south-west monsoon sets in, the surf rages outside in such a way as to render the approach of vessels perilous in the extreme. The ordinary tidal rise is from 4 to 6 feet, and runs for 28 miles up the river, the limit of navigation in the dry season. After the rains, a much greater depth of water is obtained, and an extensive rice trade has developed itself at Máchhgáon, 9 miles up the Deví. The mouth of the river is surrounded by dense jungle, destitute of inhabitants and of tillage.

Devikotta.—A small ruined fort in Tanjore District, Madras; situated 24 miles north of Tranquebar, in lat. 11° 22′ 28″ N., and long. 79° 52′ E., on the Coromandel coast, at the mouth of the Coleroon (Kolladam) river. This was one of the earliest settlements of the Company on this coast, the fort with a small tract of adjoining country having been ceded in 1749 by the Rájá of Tanjore.

Devjagáon.—Place of Hindu pilgrimage in the Jambusár Sub-division of Broach District, Bombay; situated about three-fourths of a mile from the village of Nárá, at the mouth of the Dhadhar river. The lighthouse at Devjagáon is built on the mainland at the mouth of the Dhadhar river; the height of the lantern above high water is 49 feet.

Dewa.—*Parganá* in Nawábganj *tahsíl*, Bára Bánki District, Oudh. At the time of the first Muhammadan invasion of Oudh, under Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, in 1030 A.D., this *parganá* appears to have been held by the Janwár Rájputs; and the present Shaikh residents of Dewa assert that they are descended from Sháh Wesh, the first Musalmán conqueror of the village, and lieutenant of Sayyid Sálár. But for a long time it formed only their entrenched camp; they did not acquire any proprietary rights in the *parganá* till about the commencement of the 16th century, when *aimá* grants were made to several Shaikh families. Another Musalmán settlement is that of the Sayyids of Kheoli, who colonized a tract of 32 villages west of Dewa about the commencement of the 13th century. A third colony to the south is that of the Shaikhs of Kidwára, who probably came about the same time. Other smaller Musalmán communities have also spread over the *parganá*. The Bais Kshattriyas also obtained a footing in the *parganá*, and durin

the latter years of the native Government, they seized almost the whole of the north of the *parganá*, by annexing the villages of their weaker neighbours. They became the terror of the whole neighbourhood, and for a long time they set the King's Government at open defiance. Ultimately a strong force captured the fort of one of the chiefs, who with his son were taken prisoners, and beheaded at Lucknow. The other Janwár chief was afterwards killed in battle. Both estates were confiscated and partitioned out, principally among Muhammadan Shaikhs. The percentage of cultivated land is higher in this than in any other *parganá* of the District, and south of Dewa the soil is very fertile and highly cultivated. Many of the husbandmen belong to the industrious class of Ahírs, who pay high rents to the Musalmán proprietors. Area, 141 square miles, of which 82 are cultivated; Government land revenue, £15,203, the average incidence being 5s. 7½d. per acre on cultivated area, 3s. 10½d. per acre on assessed area, and 3s. 3d. per acre of total area. Of the 163 villages which comprise the *parganá*, only 57 are held by Hindus, the rest belong to Musalmáns. Half the villages are held under *tálukdárí*, and half under *zamíndárí* tenure. Population, according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for changes of area, Hindus 62,235, Muhammadans 9687—total, 71,922, viz. 37,723 males and 34,199 females; average density of population, 510 per square mile. Five towns only contain a population exceeding 1000; 4 unmetalled roads intersect the *parganá*.

Dewa.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; 8 miles from the town of Bára Bánki. A Muhammadan colony of old standing, and the residence of two well-known families of Shaikhs. Pop. (1869), 3600, residing in 521 houses. Noted for its manufactures of glassware and delf. Government school.

Dewála.—Village in Chánda District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 6′ N., and long. 79° 6′ 30″ E.; 6 miles west of Bhandak. Interesting on account of its architectural remains, for which see BHANDAK.

Dewálgáon.—Village in Chánda District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 23′ N., and long. 80° 2′ E.; 10 miles south-west of Wairágarh. Near it stands a remarkable hill, from which excellent iron-ore is quarried.

Dewália.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £523, of which £46 is payable as British tribute and £5 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Dewálwára.—Small village in Wardha District, Central Provinces; on the river Wardha, 6 miles west of Arvi. Noted for the large fair held every November for over a century past, in the bed of the river close by. The fair lasts from 20 to 25 days, during which time pilgrims and merchants from Nágpur, Poona, Násik, Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), etc. flock

to the fine temple of the goddess Rukmí, besides transacting business to the value of £10,000 or £12,500. Immediately opposite Dewálwára stood Kundinapur, described in the 10th chapter of the sacred book *Bhágvat* as extending from the river Vidarbha (Wardha) to Amráoti, where King Bhimák reigned over the Vidarbha country, and gave his daughter in marriage to the god Krishna.

Dewálwára.—Village in Ellichpur District, Berar; situated in lat. 21° 18′ N., and long. 77° 45′ E., on the Púrna river, about 14 miles from Ellichpur. Formerly a town of some importance, containing 5000 houses, but now only noteworthy for its ancient buildings, the chief of which are a mosque, built about 300 years ago, and 2 Hindu temples. One of these is dedicated to the Nar Sinh of Hindu mythology, who, having killed Hírania Kásipú, was able, after failing everywhere else, to wash away the blood-stains at Dewálwára. Near the temple is a place now called 'Kar Shudhí Tírth,' or 'holy place of cleaning hands.'

Dewás.—Native State under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Lat. 22° 42′ to 23° 5′ N., long. 75° 57′ to 76° 21′ E. The chief products are grain, opium, sugar-cane, and cotton. The State has two chiefs. The elder chief, Kishnají Ráo Puár, is commonly known as the Baba Sáhib; the younger chief, Náráyan Ráo Puár, is styled Dada Sáhib. They are of the Puár Rájput race, and of the same stock as the Rájá of Dhar. The area of the Senior Branch is estimated at 1378 square miles, with a population (1875) of 62,884, and a revenue of £27,783. This Branch keeps up a force of 87 horse and about 500 foot, including police, with 10 guns for saluting purposes. The area of the Junior Branch is estimated at 6197 square miles, with a population (1875) of 58,925, and a revenue of £32,506. This Branch maintains a force of 123 horse and about 500 foot, including police. The territories of Dewás were allotted by Bájí Ráo Peshwá to the common ancestor Kalují. His two sons quarrelled, and the State was divided between them. By a treaty in 1818, with the two chiefs conjointly, the State was taken under British protection; the chiefs undertaking to forego communication with other States, and to supply a body of contingent troops, which was ultimately commuted for an annual cash payment of about £3500. In 1828, the chiefs of Dewás made over t the administrative charge of the British Government the *parganá* of Bagode, an outlying District in Nimar. The annual surplus revenue of this *parganá*, which in 1875-76 amounted to about £180, after payme of all administrative charges, is paid to the chiefs of Dewás. Bo the chiefs of Dewás did good service during the Mutiny of 1857-5 Both have received a *sanad* guaranteeing the right of adoption, and a entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The chief town of the State, Dewás, situated in lat. 22° 58′ N., and long. 76° 6′ E.

Dhabien, North.—Revenue circle in the Hpoung-leng township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 3076; gross revenue, £2751.

Dhabien, South.—Revenue circle in the Hpoung-leng township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 2604; gross revenue, £2876.

Dhabien.—Tidal creek in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It runs between the Púzwondoung and Pegu rivers, and at Dhabien village is 15 feet deep at high tide. In the rains its water is sweet, and it is navigable throughout its whole course.

Dhabla Dhír.—One of the guaranteed Girasiá or mediatised States under the Bhopál Agency, the Central India Agency, and the Government of India. The Thákur, Chánd Sinh, receives *tankha*, or pecuniary allowances in lieu of rights over land, from Holkár, Sindhia, Dewás, and Bhopál to the total amount of £425. In addition, he holds a grant of 3 villages in Shujáwalpur under the guarantee of the British Government, for which he pays a quit-rent of £140 annually. Chánd Sinh is also Thákur of Kankerkherah, in which right he holds another village in Shujáwalpur, paying an additional quit-rent of £17, subject to a deduction of 2 per cent. on the transfer of the *parganá* to Sindhia. He also in this right receives a *tankha* of £80.

Dhábla Ghosi.—One of the guaranteed Girasiá or mediatised States under the Bhopál Agency, the Central India Agency, and the Government of India. The Thákur, Gopál Sinh, receives *tankha*, or a pecuniary allowance in lieu of rights over land, from Sindhia, Dewás, and Bhopál to the total amount of £500. He also holds a village in Shujáwalpur on a quit-rent of £105.

Dhadhar.—River in Western India, which rises behind Chámpáner, in the western spurs of the Vindhyá range, in lat. 22° 20′ N., and long. 73° 40′ E., and after receiving on the right the Viswamitri river, on the banks of which stands the city of Baroda, ultimately falls into the Gulf of Cambay, in lat. 21° 54′ N., and long. 72° 38′ E. Total length, 70 miles; drainage area estimated at 1850 square miles.

Dha-gnya-wadí.—A revenue circle in Toung-gnú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It extends eastwards from the Pegu Yoma Hills along both banks of the Khaboung, and occupies the whole basin of that river and its tributaries. With the exception of a small tract of rice land, this circle consists of wooded hills and undulating ground. *Eng* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus), *sha* (Acacia catechu), *thenggan*, *pyengma*, *pyenggado*, and teak abound. The last is excellent, but limited in quantity. In 1876, the inhabitants numbered 3787; the gross revenue was £247.

Dhalandhar.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Contains a native asylum for lunatics. Daily average number

of inmates in 1870 was 309, 28·8 per cent. of whom were discharged as cured, and 9·7 per cent. as improved. The deaths amounted to 12·6 per cent.

Dhaldighi. — Village in Dinájpur District, Bengal. Fair held annually, which lasts for eight days, commencing on the first day of Phálgun (latter half of February); attendance, about 20,000. Considerable trade carried on at this time.

Dhaleswari.—The name of several rivers in Eastern Bengal and Assam: (1) an offshoot of the Jamuná, or main stream of the Brahmaputra, which runs across Dacca District and forms a valuable communication with the Meghná; (2) the stream formed by the junction of the Surmá and Kusiára rivers before its confluence with the Meghná, forming the boundary between the Districts of Maimansinh and Sylhet; (3) a river in Cáchár District, rising in the Lushái country, and flowing northwards into the Barák through the fertile valley of Hailákándi. At the point where it crosses the frontier, a permanent *bázár* has been established for trade with the Lusháis. In the lower part of its course, the stream has been diverted by an embankment, said to have been constructed by a Rájá of Cáchár. The old channel reaches the Barák at Siáltekh Bázár; the new channel, called the Kátákhál, is navigable by large boats. This river has given its name to a forest reserve covering an area of 33 square miles.

Dhalet.—A revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Its area is 420 square miles, extending along the upper course of the Dhalet river. The inhabitants in 1876 numbered 4629, chiefly Khyeng; the gross revenue was £542.

Dhalet.—A river in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Rises in the main range and falls into Combermere Bay; it is navigable as far as Dhalet (sometimes called Talak), a village 25 miles from its mouth. In its upper reaches the stream is a mountain torrent, only passable by small canoes.

Dhalkisor (or *Dwarkeswar*).—River of Bardwán and Húglí Districts, Bengal. It rises in the Tilábani Hill in Mánbhúm District, whence it flows through Bánkurá District, following a tortuous south-easterly course, with several bifurcations. It then enters Bardwán District a few miles east of Bishnupur; flows south-east and south past the town of Jahánábád, and leaves the District at Berárí village, after which it is known as the RUPNARAYAN, eventually joining the Húglí opposite Húgli Point. It is subject to sudden floods, but portions of the bordering country are now protected from inundation by embankments. In its upper reaches, within Bánkurá District, it is only navigable in the rainy months by craft of 2 tons burden.

Dhamasiá.—One of the petty States in Rewá Kánta, Bomb[ay]. The name of the chief is Chauhán Kalubawa. Area of State, 5 squ[are]

miles; estimated revenue, £400, of which £13 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Dhambí.—Revenue circle on the Bassein river, in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The country is now protected by an embankment from inundation by the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Pop. (1876), including Myo-gweng, 7471, chiefly engaged in rice cultivation; gross revenue, £1699.

Dhamdá.—Town in Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 27′ N., long. 81° 23′ E.; about 24 miles north-west of Ráipur. The population includes a colony of brass-workers, who manufacture the heavy brass anklets worn by the women of the country. Near the town are fine groves, and the remains of some large tanks, and of an old fort, with two handsome gateways. Dhamdá was formerly the headquarters of a Gond chief, subordinate to the kings of Ratanpur. On the conquest of Chhatísgarh by the Marhattás, their officers arrested the chief of Dhamdá on a charge of treachery, and blew him from a gun. Dhamdá has a town school, a District post office, and a police station-house.

Dhámi.—One of the Punjab Hill States under the Government of the Punjab. When Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori invaded India in the 14th century, the founder of this family fled from Ráipur, in Umballa (Ambála) District, and conquered the territory which now forms the State of Dhámi. It was at one time a feudatory of Biláspur, but was made independent of that State by the British Government when the Gurkhás, having overrun the country from 1803 to 1815, were finally expelled in the latter year. Fateh Sinh, the Rǽná of Dhámi, is a Rájput by caste. The area of the State is 26⅔ square miles. The population in 1875 was estimated at 5500; the supposed gross revenue at £800. The State pays an annual tribute of £36. The principal articles of production are grains and opium.

Dham-ma-tha.—A small town on the Gyaing river, in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. To the south is an extensive outcrop of limestone rocks covered with dense forest, and pierced by a large cave, containing images of Gautama Buddha. These rocks terminate immediately below the village in an overhanging cliff, crowned by a pagoda; and between this and the village is the Government rest-house, with a flight of steps down to the Gyaing river. The massive and rugged Zwai-ka-beng limestone ridge, known as the 'Duke of York's Nose,' is situated to the north of Dham-ma-tha.

Dhámoní.—Village in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 24° 12′ N., long. 78° 49′ E.; 29 miles north of Ságar. Súrat Sáh, a scion of the great Gond dynasty of Mandla, the original founder of Dhámoní, was defeated about 1600 by Rájá Barsinh Deva, the Bundelá chief of the neighbouring State of Orchhá, who took possession of

the country, and rebuilt the fort and town on so large a scale that it became the capital of a large tract with 2558 villages, including the greater part of the present Districts of Ságar and Damoh. His son and successor, Pahár Sinh, continued to reign till 1619, when the country became an integral portion of the Delhi Empire. During the next 80 years it was ruled by 5 successive governors from Delhi, the last of whom was, about 1700, defeated by Rájá Chhatra Sál of Panná. His descendants retained Dhámoni till 1802, when Umráo Sinh, Rájá of Pátan, a small neighbouring place, seized the fort and country by treachery, but was himself in a few months compelled to yield to the army of the Rájá of Nágpur. In 1818, soon after the flight of Apá Sáhib, the fort was invested by a British force under General Marshall; who, having ineffectually offered the garrison £1000 'in discharge of arrears of pay, on condition of immediate evacuation,' opened batteries against the place, with such effect that in six hours it was surrendered unconditionally. Dhámoni thus came under British rule, but by that time the tract had been reduced to only 33 villages. Its present condition is desolate in the extreme, the population scarcely exceeding 100; but the ruins of mosques, tombs, and buildings for nearly a mile round the fort and lake attest the importance of the place under Muhammadan rule. The fort, which covers an area of 52 acres, stands on an eminence near the summit of the *gháts* leading to Bundelkhand, commanding the valley of the river Dhásán. The ramparts are in most parts 50 feet high and 15 feet thick, with enormous round towers. Interior works further strengthen the defences of the eastern quarter, where the magazine was probably situated. Inside and around it are large groves of custard-apple trees. The town lies to the west of the fort, and the lake, which is of considerable size, to the south-west of the town. Th[e] supply of water is excellent, and the soil near the village remarkabl[y] fertile, as the luxuriant and varied vegetation shows.

Dhámpur.—*Tahsíl* of Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Pr[o]vinces. Area, 323 square miles, of which 223 are cultivated; pop. (187[2]) 169,134; land revenue, £26,668; total Government revenue, £29,41[…]; rental paid by cultivators, £56,819; incidence of Government reve[nue] per acre, 2s. 6⅞d.

Dhámpur.—Municipal town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, No[rth-]Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; lat. 29° 18′ 43″ N., and long. 78° 32′ 46″ E. Area, 79 acres; [pop.] (1872), 6555. Lies on the road from Moradábád to Hardwár, 22 m[iles] east of Bijnaur. Small but wealthy and well-built town, with a g[ood] *bázár*. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £622; from taxes, £551[…] 1s. 8d. per head of population (6555) within municipal limits.

Dhámrá.—River and estuary in Bengal, formed by the comb[ined] waters of the BRAHMANI and BAITARANI and their tributaries, [...]

enter the Bay of Bengal in lat. 20° 47′ N., and long. 87° E. The Dhámrá is a fine navigable river, but rendered dangerous by a bar across its mouth. It forms the boundary line between the Districts of Cuttack and Balasor, but lies within the jurisdiction of the latter; the entrance is marked by the Kaniká buoy in 21 feet reduced, and by Shortt's tripod beacon, on the extreme north-east dry portion of Point Palmyras Reef. Since 1866 a second outer channel, with 10 feet at lowest tide, has opened about a mile to the south. The inner bar is constantly shifting. In 1859, 12 feet of water were found here; in 1866, only 3; and in 1870, 8. The water in the Dhámrá estuary rapidly shoals from a minimum depth of 21 feet at the Kaniká buoy to 6 feet on the Central Sand. Within the southern outer channel (minimum depth, 10 feet at low tide) vessels are absolutely sheltered from the monsoon. The latest Survey Report (dated May 13, 1870) returns the tidal range of the Dhámrá at 10 feet, with variations from a minimum of 6 feet 10 inches to a maximum of 10½ feet. Brigs and Madras traders drawing from 10 to even 18 feet frequent the harbour of the Dhámrá, which was declared a port in 1858, with perfect safety.

Dhámrá.—Port in the estuary of the same name, Cuttack District, Bengal. Lat. 20° 47′ 40″ N., long. 86° 55′ 55″ E. The name is applied to the navigable channels of the rivers forming the DHAMRA, as far as they are affected by tidal waters. These limits embrace Chándbálí, on the Baitaraní, a seat of coasting-steamer traffic, and a rapidly rising town; Hansuá, on the Bráhmaní, formerly a great salt emporium; Patámundái, on the same river; and Aul, on the Kharsuá,—the three last within Cuttack District. The trade of Chándbálí and Mahurígáon (a town 2 miles above Chándbálí, on the Cuttack side of the river) is mainly steamer traffic, monopolizing almost entirely the import and export trade of BALASOR DISTRICT. The rest of the trade of Dhámrá port is carried on exclusively in sailing ships, and consists chiefly in the export of rice. In 1874-75, the value of the Chándbálí and Mahurígáon imports was £200,858, and of Dhámrá proper only £89; the value of the Chándbálí and Mahurígáon exports was £139,554, and that of Dhámrá £11,407. The eastern boundary of the port is the Dhámrá customs station.

Dhamtári. — *Tahsíl* or Revenue Subdivision in Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 22′ 30″ to 21° 1′ N., long. 80° 41′ 30″ to 81° 46′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 275,461, residing in 1020 villages or townships and 53,283 houses, on an area of 2495 square miles.

Dhamtári.—The largest town in the southern portion of Ráipur District, Central Provinces, lying in lat. 20° 42′ N., and long. 81° 35′ 30″ E., on the main road from the north to Bastár and Kánker, 36 miles south of Ráipur. Pop. (1876), 6023. The fertile plain around produces crops of wheat, rice, cotton, oil-seeds, and sugar-cane unsur-

passed in any part of Chhatísgarh. Dhamtári does a considerable trade in lac, exporting from 2000 to 2400 bullock-loads yearly. It has a town school, girls' school, dispensary, post office, and police station.

Dhanaura.—Agricultural town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 58′ N., long. 78° 18′ 30″ E.; area, 68 acres; pop. (1872), 5287, comprising 4651 Hindus and 656 Muhammadans. Lies on the plain, 9 miles east of the Ganges, and 33 miles west from Moradábád. Of merely local importance.

Dhanauti.—River in Champáran District, Bengal. Formerly a branch of the Lál Begí, a bifurcation of the Lower Harha, a tributary of the Gandak. It is 113 miles long, but has now quite silted up in its upper parts, and for many years has received no flood discharge. It ultimately falls into the Sikhrená, near Sítákúnd.

Dhandhuka.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Ahmedábád District, Bombay. Lat. 22° 21′ 15″ N., long. 72° 2′ 20″ E.; 62 miles south-west of Ahmedábád and 100 miles north-west of Surat; pop. (1872), 9782; municipal revenue (1874-75), £504; rate of taxation, 1s. per head. Dhandhuka, which is a place of considerable antiquity, has a sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Dhaneswari.—River of Assam, rising in the Bárel Mountains, which form the watershed between the Nágá Hills and Cáchár; in lat. 25° 20′ N., and long. 93° 24′ E. Its course through the Nágá Hills District is on the whole northerly, through a vast plain of heavy jungle, amid which are to be seen the ruins of Dimápur, until it is joined by the Dáyang. The combined stream then turns towards the north-east, and finds its way after many windings into the Brahmaputra, near the village of Bagdwár Chápari, in lat. 26° 44′ N., and long. 93° 42′ E. In this portion of its course it forms for several miles the boundary between the Districts of Nowgong and Sibságar. The only important place on its banks is Golághát, in Sibságar District, which is a centre of trade for the Nágá tribes. Up to this point it is navigable by steamers during the rainy season, but small boats can proceed as high as Dimapur.

Dhangáin.—Pass in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; by which the Old Trunk Road to Sherghátí left the upper plateau for the lower level. Lat. 24° 23′ 30″ N., and long. 84° 59′ 45″ E. It is now impracticable for wheeled traffic, and has fallen into disuse.

Dhánikholá.—Town in Maimansinh District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 3[illegible] 10″ N., long. 90° 24′ 11″ E.; pop. (1872), 6730. Situated on th[illegible] Satuá river, an insignificant stream.

Dhanú.—An extensive revenue circle in Tha-htún township, Amher[illegible] District, Tenasserim, British Burma, lying on the right bank of t[illegible] Kyouk-tsarit and Bheng-laing rivers. Consists of hilly tracts liable [illegible] inundation, partly from the spill of the Bheng-laing, and partly fr[illegible]

that of the Bhíleng, which is excluded from the Thah-tún plains and forced round the northern end of the Martaban Hills by the Dúnwon embankment. Pop. (1876), 7661, chiefly Toungthús; land revenue, £145; and capitation tax, £589. The name is derived from the Dhanú, one of the hundred and one races into which the world (according to the Burmese traditions) is divided.

Dhanu.—River in the south-east of Maimainsinh District, Bengal, which falls into the Meghná. Navigable by small boats during the rainy season.

Dhanúl Bhúra-gyí.—A vast pagoda, now in ruins, in the Angyí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It was formerly the site of a flourishing village; but there are no records extant bearing upon the history of either village or pagoda.

Dhánur.—Lake in Sírsa District, Punjab; formed by an expansion of the river Ghaggar, 3 miles long by 1 broad. Though shallow and swampy, it contains water throughout the year. A few Persian wheels are worked upon the banks, but the water is little used, except for purposes of drinking and bathing.

Dháola Dhar. — Mountain chain in Kángra District, Punjab; formed by a projecting fork of the outer Himálayan range, marking the boundary between the Kángra valley and Chamba. The main system here rises steeply from the lowlands at its base, unbroken by any minor hills, to an elevation of 13,000 feet above the valley beneath. The chain is formed by a mass of granite, which has forced its way through the superincumbent sedimentary rocks, and crowns the summit with its intrusive pyramidal crests, too precipitous for the snow to find a lodging. Below, the waste of snow-fields is succeeded by a belt of pines, giving way to oaks as the flanks are descended, and finally merging into a cultivated vale watered by perennial streams. The highest peak attains an elevation of 15,956 feet above sea level; while the valley has a general height of about 2000 feet.

Dhápewára. — A clean and healthy town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces, on either side of the river Chandrabhágá, in a fertile plain. Situated in lat. 21° 18′ N., and long. 78° 57′ E., 20 miles north-west of Nágpur; pop. (1870), 4566, chiefly Koshtís, employed in the manufacture of cotton cloth, of which industry Dhápewára was one of the earliest seats in the District. The fort was built for protection against the Pindárís about seventy years ago.

Dhar.—One of the States within the Bhíl (Bheel) Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India; situated between 22° 1′ and 23° 8′ N. lat., and between 74° 43′ and 75° 35′ E. long. The present Rájá of Dhar, Anand Ráo Puár, who was born about 1843, is a Puár Rájput, and the family claim descent from the famous Vikramáditya of Hindu legend. Their ancestors belonged to a Rájput tribe, settled

in Málwá, whence they emigrated to the neighbourhood of Poona, and eventually became distinguished commanders under Sivaji and his successors. The present dynasty was founded by Anand Ráo, who, in 1749, received the grant of Dhar from Bájí Ráo Peshwá. For twenty years before the British conquest of Málwá, Dhar was subjected to a series of spoliations by Sindhia and Holkár, and was preserved from destruction only by the talents and courage of Mína Bái, widow of Anand Ráo II. and adoptive mother of Rámchandra Puár, the fifth in descent from the founder of the family. Rámchandra Puár was succeeded by his adopted son, Jeswant Ráo, who died in 1857, and was succeeded by his half-brother, Anand Ráo, the present Rájá. The State was confiscated for rebellion in 1857, but subsequently restored to Anand Ráo (then a minor), with the exception of the District of Bairsia, which was granted to the Sekandra Begam. The area of the State is 2500 square miles. The population in 1875 was estimated at 150,000, and the revenue at £67,000. By the treaty of January 1819, Dhar was taken under British protection. The State pays a contribution of £1965 to the Málwá Bhíl corps. The military force consists of 276 cavalry and about 800 infantry, including police, 2 guns, and 21 artillerymen. The chief has received a *sanad* of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. There is 1 English school and 18 vernacular schools, 2 dispensaries and a new hospital recently built by the Rájá. The chief products are wheat, opium, gram, sugar-cane, Indian corn, and cotton. The town of Dhar is in lat. 22° 36′ N., long. 75° 20′ E.

Dhárákota.—Estate in Ganjám District, Madras. Number of houses, 6753; pop. (1871), 31,923—viz. Hindus, 31,868 (all Vaishnavs except 2200 Sivaites), and Muhammadans (all Sunnis), 55.

Dharamkotta.—Shrine, Kistna District, Madras.—*See* AMRAVATI.

Dharampur.—Native State within the Political Agency of Surat, in the Province of Gujarát (Guzerat), Bombay. Bounded north by the State of Bánsda, east by the State of Sulgáná and the Dangs, south by the State of Peint, and west by the Bulsár Subdivision of Surat District. The territory is 48 miles long from north to south, and 30 in breadth from east to west. Area, 225 square miles; pop. (1872), 74,592. A small portion only is cultivable; the rest is hilly, rocky, and covere with forest and brushwood. Except in Dharampur town and a few oth villages, where there are reservoirs, wells are the only source of the wat supply. The climate is very unhealthy. The prevailing diseases a fever, dropsy, diarrhœa, and asthma. The principal products are t flower of the *mahuá* (Bassia latifolia), teak, blackwood, and other timb The crops—rice, pulse, and sugar-cane. The manufactures—ma baskets, and other articles of bamboo. A cart-road, passing southwa through Peint, connects the State of Dharampur with Násik station the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, while another rougher track runr

westwards joins it with Bulsár station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway line. The gross revenue is estimated at £25,000. In 1873, there were 3 schools, with 50 pupils. The present (1875) Chief, a Hindu of the Sesodiá clan of Rájputs, is thirty-four years of age. His name is Náráyandevjí Ramdevjí, and his title Rájá Mahárání Srí. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. He administers the State himself, and maintains a military force of 184 men. The house follows the rule of primogeniture in point of succession, and holds a *sanad* authorizing adoption. It would seem probable that the territory of Dharampur, or Rámnagar, as it was originally called, was once much more extensive than now, stretching westward as far as the sea-coast. The claims of the Peshwá on the revenues of this State were ceded to the British under the terms of the treaty of Bassein (1802), and are still levied by officers of the British Government; they yield a yearly sum of from £600 to £700.

Dharampur.—The chief town of the State of the same name; situated in lat. 20° 34′ N., and long. 73° 14′ E. Pop. (1872), 3233.

Dharangáon.—Municipal town in the Erandol Subdivision of Khandesh District, Bombay. Lat. 21° N., long. 75° 20′ 20″ E.; 35 miles east by north of Dhuliá. Pop. (1872), 11,649; municipal income (1874-75), £80; rate of taxation, 1½d. per head. Dharangáon has a post office, and is the headquarters of the District superintendent of police and of the Bhíl corps. A considerable trade in cotton and oil-seeds is carried on with Galgáon, a town and railway station about 16 miles to the east, where many of the Dharangáon merchants have agents. The paper and cloth of Dharangáon were formerly held in esteem. At present the manufacture of paper has entirely ceased; but the weaving of coarse cloth still gives employment to more than 100 looms. In the year 1855, Government established a cotton ginning factory at Dharangáon, with 93 saw-gins, under the management of a European overseer; merchants and cultivators were charged £1 a month for the use of a gin. But the experiment proved costly, and was subsequently abandoned. Under Marhattá rule, Dharangáon was the scene of a terrible massacre of Bhíls, who had on several occasions plundered the town. In 1818, the place came into the possession of the British Government; and it was here that Lieutenant, afterwards Sir James, Outram was engaged from 1825 to 1830 in improving the position of the Bhíls, by training them in an irregular corps.

Dhárapuram.—*Táluk* in Coimbatore District, Madras. Houses, 39,950. Pop. (1871), 217,493—being Hindus, 213,242 (chiefly Sivaites); Muhammadans, 3915 (all Sunnis except 28); Christians, 336 (all native Roman Catholics). Chief town, Dárapur or DHARAPURAM.

Dhárapuram (*Dárapur*).—Chief town in above *táluk*, Coimbatore

District, Madras. Houses, 1282; pop. (1871), 7009, of whom 81 per cent. are agricultural; proportion of Hindus, 82 per cent. Situated in lat. 10° 44′ 35″ N., and long. 77° 34′ 28″ E., 46 miles east-south-east of Coimbatore and 250 from Madras, on the left bank of the river Amrávati, in a fine plateau of open country 909 feet above the sea, which stretches nearly to the Palani Mountains, some 15 miles south. A channel from the river bisects the town. Dhárapuram is said to have been the capital of the Kshattriya King Bhaja, and is otherwise interesting as having, in 1667, and again in 1746, been taken from Madura by Mysore. In the campaigns with Haidar Alí and Tipú Sáhib, it was also a point of some strategical importance, being captured by Colonel Wood in 1768, retaken by Haidar in the same year; again occupied by the British in 1783; given up by the treaty of Mangalore, and finally resumed in 1790 by General Meadows. In 1792, the fort was dismantled. For a time Dhárapuram was the headquarters of the District, and the seat of the *zilá* court, but is now only the headquarters of the *táluk*, and as such possesses the usual subordinate administrative establishments, a police station, post office, school, and dispensary. At the weekly market held here, the *ghí*, paddy, and pepper, which, with tobacco and oil-seed, form the staple products of the *táluk*, are collected for export in exchange for metal-ware and cloth. The town is connected by road with three railway stations—Tirupur, Perundurai, and Karúr.

Dhari.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 2¾ square miles; there are 6 chiefs. The estimated revenue is £250, and a tribute of £95 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Dharlá (or *Torshá*).—River of Bengal, which rises in the Bhután Hills, flows south through the Western Dwárs of Jalpáigurí District, passing through the centre of Madári *parganá*, till it enters Kuch Behar territory at Nekobarpára village. Chief tributaries in Jalpáigurí, the Bhelá Kubá and the Hánsmárá. Its course through Kuch Behar is tortuous, its old beds and affluents forming a perfect network of channels. Gives off the Torshá river in Kuch Behar; joined by the Singímári or Jáldhaká near Durgápur; turns south through Rangpur District, and falls into the Brahmaputra at Bagwá, in lat. 25° 40′ N. and long. 89° 47′ 30″ E. Navigable by cargo-boats during the rains.

Dharma.—Tract of country in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the northern or Thibetan side of the main Himálayan range; situated between 30° 5′ and 30° 30′ N., and between 80° 25′ and 80° 45′ E. Of considerable elevation—its chief peak, Lebo, rising 18,942 feet above sea level; while the Dharma Pass, on the northern frontier, leading into Hundes, reaches a height of about 15,... feet. The habitable portion consists of narrow and very rugged valleys traversed by the river Dhauli and its tributaries. The inhabitants are Bhotiyas, a Thibetan race, who carry on a trade between Hundes

Kumáun, by means of pack-sheep, over the Dharma Pass. Estimated area, about 400 square miles.

Dharmánpur.—*Parganá* in Nánpára *tahsíl*, Bahráich District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nepál, on the east and south by Nánpára *parganá*, and on the west by the Kauriála river, separating it from Kherí District. Formerly included in Dhaurahra, and only constituted a separate *parganá* since the British annexation of Oudh. Largely occupied by forest tracts, which comprise 172 square miles out of a total area of 304. The remainder, 132 square miles, is occupied by 64 villages, the cultivated area being only 47 square miles. The Government land revenue, which, on account of the large area of cultivable waste land available, has been fixed at a rate progressively increasing every ten years, is as follows:—1871, £3303; 1881, £4177; 1891, £5052. Average incidence of final assessment, 2s. 1¾d. per acre of cultivated area; 10¼d. per acre of assessable area, and 8¾d. per acre of total area. Graziers from all parts of Northern Oudh drive their herds into the forests of this *parganá*. Game of every description abounds. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 22,627; Muhammadans, 1694; total, 24,321, viz. 13,552 males and 10,769 females; average density of population, 81 per square mile.

Dharmapuri.—*Táluk* in Salem District, Madras. Houses, 32,336; pop. (1871), 190,626, viz. 95,080 males and 95,546 females. Classified according to religion—Hindus, 183,894, including 115,783 Sivaites and 68,088 Vishnuvites; Muhammadans, 4366, including 4142 Sunnis and 166 Shiás; Christians, almost exclusively Roman Catholics, 2366, being 7 Europeans and 2359 natives. Chief town, DHARMAPURI.

Dharmapuri.—Town in Dharmapuri *táluk*, Salem District, Madras; situated in lat. 12° 9′ N., and long. 78° 13′ E., 35 miles north of Salem. Houses, 1621; pop. (1871), 7434. As the headquarters of the *táluk*, it contains the subordinate judicial and magisterial courts, a post office, police station, school, and dispensary. Until 1688, Dharmapuri belonged to the kingdom of Aura, but in that year was annexed by Mysore. In 1768, it was captured by Colonel Wood, but reoccupied by Haidar Alí until the signature of peace.

Dharmavaram.—*Táluk* of Bellary District, Madras. Area, 1226 square miles, with a population in 1871 of 119,877, or 97 persons to the square mile; revenue (1869-70), £18,485, the land contributing £12,176. Of the total area, 266,489 acres are cultivated, only 22,078, however, being under 'wet' crops, owing to the insufficiency of irrigation works, from which this large *táluk* suffers. About 100 miles of made road connect the large towns—Dharmavaram, Kalyandrúg, Konderpidrúg, and Kambadúr—with each other. Chief town, DHARMAVARAM.

Dharmavaram.—Town in Dharmavaram *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 14° 24′ N., long. 77° E.; houses, 1408; pop. (1871), 7029.

Situated on the Chitrávati river, 50 miles south of Gooty (Guti) and 196 north-west of Madras. It is the headquarters of the *táluk*, and the market held here is of considerable local importance. Said to have been founded by Kriyasakti Wodeyar, and formerly fortified.

Dharmkot.—Municipal town in Firozpur (Ferozepore) District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 56′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 16′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 5379, being 1349 Hindus, 2465 Muhammadans, 1305 Sikhs, and 260 'others.' Lies on the road from Firozpur to Ludhiána, 56 miles east of the former city. Originally known as Kutálpur, but renamed after its occupation in 1760 by the Sikh chieftain, Tára Sinh, of the Dallewála confederacy, who built a fort, now destroyed. Well paved and drained. Middle-class school, *sarái*, police station. Many wealthy merchants; large trade in grain. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £136, or 5⅞d. per head of population (5478) within municipal limits.

Dharmpur.—Village in Hardoi District, Oudh; 11 miles east of Fatehgarh, and the first encamping-ground on the route from Fatehgarh to Lucknow and Hardoi. Noteworthy as the residence of Rájá Sir Hardeo Baksh, K.C.S.I., in whose fort were loyally sheltered several English officers during the Mutiny.

Dharmsála.—Hill station, municipality, and administrative headquarters of Kángra District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 15′ 42″ N., long. 76° 22′ 46″ E.; pop., in July 1869, 2862, comprising 137 Europeans and 2725 natives; but as the number of residents fluctuates greatly, these figures can only be accepted as approximate. Probably the actual population is now much larger. Dharmsála lies on a spur of the DHAOLA DHAR, 16 miles north-east of Kángra, in the midst of wild and picturesque scenery. It occupies the site of an old Hindu sanctuary or *dharmsála* (whence the name), and originally formed a subsidiary cantonment for the troops stationed at Kángra. In 1855, the District headquarters were removed to the spot; and a small town rapidly collected around the civil station. It now contains several private European residences, a church, two large barracks for soldiers invalided from English regiments, three *bázárs*, public gardens and assembly rooms, court-house, jail, treasury, hospital, and other public buildin[gs]. The town and cantonments stretch along the hillside, with an elevat[ion] varying from 4500 to 6500 feet. The churchyard contains a monum[ent] in memory of Lord Elgin, who died at Dharmsála in 1863. Pictures[que] waterfalls and other objects of interest lie within reach of an [easy] excursion. A cart-road connects the town with Jalandhar (Jullun[dur]) and the plains; supplies can be obtained at moderate prices; and [the] station bids fair to become a favourite retreat for civilians and inva[lids]. The rainfall, however, is very heavy, its annual average being ret[urned] at 148·3 inches. Trade is confined to the supply of necessarie[s for] European residents and their servants. Municipal revenue (187

£295, or 2s. 10⅞d. per head of population (2024) within municipal limits.

Dharnaoda.—A petty State in the Gúna (Goona) Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. There are seven Thákurs, of whom Thákur Burrál Sinh is the chief. Thieving and cattle-lifting are incessant in this State. A *sarái* for protection of travellers on the Bombay and Agra road is built at Notgage.

Dharupur.—Village in Partábgarh District, Oudh; 24 miles from Bela, and 16 from Mánikpur. Founded by Dháru Sáh, the ancestor of the present *tálukdár*, whose fort and residence are still in existence. During the Mutiny, British refugees were hospitably received here. At the *bázár* adjoining the fort, a considerable trade is carried on, the annual sales reaching £10,000 in value. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 1287; and Muhammadans, 316; total, 1603. Three Sivaite temples; Government school.

Dhárwár.—A British District in the Southern Marhattá country, Bombay, lying between 14° 17′ and 15° 50′ N. lat., and between 74° 51′ and 75° 57′ E. long. Area, according to Parliamentary Blue Book of 1878, 4565 square miles; population in 1872, 988,037. Its greatest length from north to south is 116 miles, and its greatest breadth 77 miles.

Physical Aspects.—Dhárwár District is roughly divided into two belts, characterised by differences of configuration and of soil and products. The Poona and Harihar road may be considered the dividing line. To the north and north-east of that road, in the Subdivisions of Nawalgund, Ron, and the greater part of Gadag, spread vast unbroken plains of black soil, which produce abundant crops of cotton. In the south-eastern portion of this plain are the Kapad Hills; and again, after passing over a stretch of black soil in the Karajgi Subdivision, there is an undulating country of red soil, extending to the boundary of Mysore. The western belt of the District is traversed by low hills, extending from the southern bank of the river Málprabha to near the Mysore frontier. This tract consists of a succession of low ranges covered with herbage and brushwood. They are separated by flat valleys; and it is to these valleys and the lower slopes of the hills that cultivation is chiefly confined. Farther west, the country becomes still more hilly, and the trees increase in size towards the frontier of North Kanara. In this tract all the Government forest reserves are to be found. The Subdivisions of Hángal and Kod, to the south of Dhárwár, present almost the same appearance, small hills rising out of the plain in all directions with fertile valleys between. The number of tanks in these Subdivisions is a special feature in the landscape; but, with some marked exceptions, they are small and shallow, retaining water for not more than three or four months after the rains.

From its position on the summit of the watershed of the Peninsula,

Dhárwár is devoid of large rivers. Of its 7 principal streams, 6 run eastwards to the Bay of Bengal, and one flows through the Western Gháts to the Arabian Sea. (1) The Málprabha, for about 20 miles, forms the northern boundary of the District, dividing it from Kaládgi. (2) The Bennihalla has its source about 20 miles south of the town of Hubli, and, flowing northwards through the central plain of the District, falls into the Málprabha. (3) The Tungabhadra, on the south-eastern frontier, divides Dhárwár from Mysore, Bellary, and the Dominions of the Nizám. (4) The Wardha, a tributary of the Tungabhadra, passes from east to west through two of the southern Subdivisions of the District. (5) The Dharma crosses Dhárwár in a south-westerly direction, and eventually joins the Wardha; and (6) the Kumadwati flows east and then north-east through Kod Subdivision, falling into the Tungabhadra near Holianaweri. (7) The one westward flowing stream is the Birti Nálá, which passes through the Kalghatgi Subdivision. None of these rivers are navigable; but with the exception of the Bennihalla, whose brackish stream soon dries up, they afford plentiful supplies both for drinking purposes and for irrigation. The Málprabha and Wardha are considered the best for drinking, while the water of the Tungabhadra is said by the natives to be heavy and exceptionally sweet. In the west, near the hills, the rainfall is abundant; and as the natural unevenness of the ground offers suitable sites, many tanks have been constructed, and a sufficient supply of water is thus kept in store. But in the central and eastern portion of Dhárwár, the water supply is very scanty, and the flat surface of the country presents few natural advantages for the storage of water on a large scale. Though almost every village has its own tank, the want of drinking water is at time keenly felt, for the shallow tanks rapidly become choked with the drainage from the black cotton-soil. Even in a season of ample rainfall, the dry up by the beginning of March. In 1869, the inhabitants of som of the villages in the plain were forced to fetch their water from distanc of 10 or 12 miles, while many migrated with their cattle to the ban of the Tungabhadra and Málprabha. Nor can a sufficient supply easily obtained from wells. In most parts the water-bearing strata far below the surface, occasionally as deep as 80 or 90 feet, while water obtained is often found to be brackish. Large sums are sp annually on the reservoirs and tanks of the District. The 'black s or *regar*, occurs in beds from a few inches to 30 or 40 feet in de but it is interrupted by chains of hills, and at places covered by allu soil and pebbles washed down from their sides. In the north-eas the District some singular hills are met with, rising abruptly ou the plain as isolated landmarks. They are not more than 300 high; and the stone varies much in structure, being a loose varieg gritty substance, which sometimes approaches a compact quartz

showing grey and whitish yellow to red bands of all shades of colour. The Kapad Hills are principally composed of hornblende and chloritic schists, gneiss, and mica slate. Manganese is found in considerable quantities. Some of the hills are capped with laterite. The bed of the Doni rivulet, which has its rise in these hills, contains gravel and sand, in which gold dust is found associated with magnetic iron-sand, grains of platinum, grey carbonate of silver, and copper. It is, however, chiefly among the chlorite slate hills on the western side that gold is found. The zone of hills on the west of the District, from 15 to 25 miles broad, consists entirely of various hypogene schists. In its northern part, jaspideous schists predominate; in the centre, these pass into chloritic and argillaceous slates and shales of all shades of white, yellow, red, brown, and green, interstratified with beds of white or iron coloured quartz, and of jaspideous rock. These layers generally form crests and mural ridges on the summits of the hills, which run in parallel ranges north-west by north, and south-east by south.

In former times, gold is said to have been obtained in abundance, and even now the Kapad range of hills in the neighbourhood of Dambal in the east of the District, and the beds of streams issuing from them, yield some gold. Washing is practised by a class of people called Jalgárs, but their employment is not constant, being carried on only for a short time in every year after the flood. At this season their gains are said not to average more than from 9d. to 1s. a day. In the hills in the west of the District, iron was formerly smelted in considerable quantities. Owing, however, to the great destruction of timber during the past forty years, fuel has become scarce, and this industry is now only carried on to a limited extent. The iron made is of superior quality, but cannot as a general rule compete in cheapness with imported iron. The western or hilly portion of the District contains much forest land, of which 66,499 acres have been set apart by Government for reserves. The black soil plains, on the other hand, suffer from a scarcity of trees; timber for building purposes has to be brought from great distances, and sun-dried cakes of cow-dung are the chief fuel. To supply these wants, strict conservation, with replanting, is being carried on in the Government forest reserves.

Feræ Naturæ.—Of wild animals, the District contains the tiger, panther, bear, wolf, hyæna, fox, jackal, wild boar; and of game, the spotted deer and the common antelope. Most of the rivers and tanks contain fish, and in the larger reservoirs some of great size are caught.

History.—The territory comprised within the present District of Dhárwár appears to have formed part of the ancient Hindu kingdom of Vijáyanagar. On the overthrow of the Vijáyanagar power at the battle

of Tálikot, in 1565, by a confederacy of Musalmán princes, Dhárwár was annexed to the Muhammadan kingdom of Bijápur. In 1675, the country was overrun, and partially conquered, by the Marhattás under Sivají; and from that time, for about a century, remained subject first to the Marhattá ruler of Satára, and afterwards to the Peshwá of Poona. In 1776, under Haidar Alí, the usurper of Mysore, the Musalmáns again occupied Dhárwár; but before five years were over, by the help of a British force, the Marhattás, in 1791, captured a second time the fort and town of Dhárwár. The country remained under Marhattá management till 1818, when, on the overthrow of the Peshwá, it was incorporated with the Bombay Presidency. There are many old forts scattered through the District, and a few religious buildings, elaborately sculptured and of beautiful though somewhat heavy design. The chief modern buildings are the religious houses or *maths* of the Lingáyat sect. These are ugly but commodious structures, used as a residence for the priests or *ayahas*, and also to a large extent as resting-places for travellers.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned a total population of 988,037 persons, or 217·82 to the square mile. Of these, 872,390, or 88·29 per cent., including 11,285 Sráwaks or Jains, are Hindus; 114,106, or 11·54 per cent., Musalmáns; 1521, or 0·15, Christians, including 1245 native converts; 13 Pársís; 6 Jews; and 1 'other.' The percentage of males in the total population is 51·21.

In the Subdivisions of Dhárwár, Hubli, Gadag, and Bankápur, and in the State of Sawanúr, the population contains a considerable Musalmán element. Among the nomadic tribes, the chief are the Waddars, Lambanis, Gollars, and Advichinchis. The Waddars move with their wives and families, from place to place in search of work. They are generally employed on earthwork, quarrying, sinking wells or making roads and reservoirs. The Lambanis also wander about i gangs. They correspond to the Banjáras of Guzerat and Centr India, and do a large carrying trade on pack-bullocks and ponie The Gollars and Advichinchars are a class of wandering jugglers, w live in the forest and pick up a precarious and often dishonest liv hood; but they are not thieves by profession.

Of the total number of Hindus, 380,919, or 43·66 per cent., bel to the sect of Lingáyats.

The population of Dhárwár is, on the whole, prosperous. The is fertile, the climate favourable, and the people not wanting energy. The cultivators have a good stock of cattle, especially in eastern parts of the District. Towards the Western Gháts, cultiva is scantier, and the people less thriving.

There are three Christian Missions in the District. The chief o subordinate to the Basle German Mission, with resident missionar Dhárwár, Hubli, and Gadag-Betigeri, and congregations at the vi

of Unkal, Hebsur, and Thagoti. The second mission is subordinate to the Roman Catholic Bishop of Bombay; its chief station is Dhárwár, and it has congregations at Hubli and Tumrikop. The third mission is subordinate to the Archbishop of Goa; excepting the town of Dhárwár, its congregational stations are situated beyond the District boundary.

Kanarese is the vernacular language of the District, though the Dhárwár dialect is not so pure as that spoken in Kanara itself. By many of the better classes Marhatti is understood; but Hindustáni is known only to a few Musalmáns.

The chief towns of the District are—(1) HUBLI, pop. (1872), 37,961; (2) DHARWAR, pop. 27,136; (3) RANIBENNUR, pop. 11,623; (4) GADAG, pop. 10,319; (5) NARGUND, pop. 9931; (6) NAWALGUND, pop. 9578; (7) BETIGERI, pop. 8716; (8) ANNIGERI, pop. 7098; (9) MULGUND, pop. 6844; (10) HEBLI, pop. 6483; (11) SHAHABAJAR or BANKAPUR, pop. 6268; (12) KURLKOTI, pop. 5901; (13) HAVERI, pop. 5465; (14) RON, pop. 5251; (15) SHALWARI, pop. 5220; and (16) NAREGAL, pop. 5182.

Of the total population, 168,976 persons, or 17·20 per cent., live in towns containing a population of more than 5000. Formerly all the principal towns, and even villages, were defended by a fort within which the richest inhabitants lived in well-built houses; without the walls were the huts of the poorer and less influential classes. Though the fortifications have now been allowed to fall into decay, a marked distinction still exists between the town proper or *pét* and the houses within the fort. Villages in the western and southern parts of the District have in general a thriving appearance, arising from the common use of tiled roofs. In the northern and eastern parts, houses are, as a rule, flat-roofed, and there are few trees near the villages. They are chiefly constructed on massive woodwork frames, built in with mud bricks, the ends of which are triangular in shape. Formerly many of the villages were surrounded by low walls of mud and sun-dried bricks, as a protection against the attacks of thieves, but most of these walls are now falling into decay.

Exclusive of 48 hamlets, there were, in 1872, 1309 inhabited State and alienated villages, giving an average of 0·29 villages to each square mile, and 754·23 inhabitants to each village. The total number of houses was returned at 205,072, showing an average of 47 houses per square mile, and of 4·8 persons per house.

Three annual fairs or religious meetings are held in the District—(1) at Hulgur in Bankápur Subdivision, in February, in honour of a famous Musalmán devotee; attendance of pilgrims in 1875, 3300; (2) at Yamnur in Nawalgund Subdivision, in March, also in commemoration of a Muhammadan saint; attendance of pilgrims, 26,000; (3) at Gud-

guddápur in Ránibennur Subdivision, in September, in honour of a Hindu deity, Maydar Martand; attendance of pilgrims, 8700. Trade is carried on only to a very limited extent at these festivals. There are 21 other religious gatherings of less importance.

The staff of the village community consists of two classes, one connected with the Government, and the other useful to the community alone. The first class comprises the *pátel*, or head-man; the *kulkarni*, or accountant; *shetsumlis*, or policeman; and *talwars*, *barkis*, and *mahars*, the menial servants. In the second class are the *joshi*, or astrologer; the *kázi* and *mullá*, the Musalmán priests; the *jangam*, or *aya;* the *sutár*, or carpenter; the *lohár*, or blacksmith; the *kumbhár*, or potter; the *sonár*, or goldsmith; the *hajjám*, or barber; the *baidya*, or doctor; the *dhor*, or manufacturer of leathern articles for farmers; the *dhobi*, or washerman; the *pújári*, or worshipper; the *mathapati*, or procurer of milk and butter for strangers; and the *mahárs*, or sweepers. In large villages, the organization may be found complete; but in small villages, the *joshi*, *sonár*, *vaulya*, *dhobi*, and *hajjám*, do not generally exist. Besides the above, in some few villages in the Hángal, Karajgi, and Kod Subdivisions there is a class of village servants called *nir manégárs*, whose special duties are to keep the tank water-courses in repair, and let water on to the fields.

Agriculture.—Exclusive of land belonging to other jurisdictions situated within its limits, Dhárwár District contains a total area of 2,902,258 acres, of which 864,204 acres, or 29·8 per cent., have been alienated. Of the remainder, 1,662,040 acres are assessed arable land, and 376,013 acres are unassessed waste. The soil of the District may be divided into three classes, viz. red soil, black soil, and a rich brown loam. The red soil is a shallow gravelly deposit formed by the disintegration o hills and rocks. The black soil is the well-known *regar*, or cotton-soi on which the value of Dhárwár as a cotton-producing District depend It ordinarily varies in depth from 2 to 20 feet. The brown loam is four chiefly on the west of the District, once the site of large forests; it supposed to be chiefly of vegetable origin, and is of little depth. T Government land is held under the Survey tenure, at a revenue fixed a term of thirty years. The land alienated by the State is, as a rule, h at a fixed quit-rent. There are two chief crops in the year—the e or *kharíf*, and the late or *rabí* harvest. The early crops are sown June, and harvested in October and November. The late crops, ex cotton, are sown in October and reaped in February. Cotton is s in August, and picked in March. A field of black soil requires one ploughing in the year, and is seldom manured. A field of red on the other hand, is ploughed three or four times, and is gene manured. The entire stock of agricultural implements required single husbandman may be valued at from 10s. to £2.

The oxen are of three varieties—two of inferior breed, indigenous to the District, and the large and well-made animals imported from Mysore. These Mysore bullocks are much valued; an ordinary pair fetches about £15, and for a superior pair as much as £45, or even £200, is sometimes paid. The ponies of Dhárwár were once famous. Of late years the breed is said to have fallen off, and efforts are now being made to improve it by the introduction of Pegu sires.

The agricultural stock in possession of the cultivators of State or *khálsá* villages during 1874-75 numbered 94,010 ploughs, 38,608 carts, 235,214 bullocks, 137,646 buffaloes, 124,080 cows, 6687 horses, 174,334 sheep and goats, and 6863 asses. Of the total cultivated area in the same year—grain crops occupied 706,504 acres, or 52·43 per cent.; pulses, 136,426 acres, or 10·12 per cent.; oil-seeds, 37,614 acres, or 2·79 per cent.; fibres, including cotton, 285,582 acres, or 21·19 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 183,406 acres, or 13·61 per cent. In addition, 182,869 acres were fallow or under grass.

Of the total just enumerated, 283,810 acres, or 21·06 per cent., were under cotton, the indigenous variety occupying 141,641, and Orleans cotton 142,169 acres. Several attempts have been made by Government to introduce the culture of New Orleans cotton, but up to 1842 without success. In that year, however, the results were most satisfactory. Both in quantity and quality the out-turn was better than the indigenous variety, and the cultivation of New Orleans cotton has since spread rapidly. Its superiority is now generally recognised, not only in Dhárwár, but in the neighbouring Districts. As American cotton cannot be properly ginned by the native process, it was found necessary to introduce new machinery. To ensure a sufficient supply of the best gins, they are imported from England and offered for sale at the Government factory at Dhárwár, while for their repair branch factories have been established at local centres of trade.

From the earliest date of which historical record is available, the District appears to have suffered from droughts of more or less severity. Between 1787 and 1796 a succession of droughts, accompanied by swarms of locusts, occurred. This period of famine is said to have been at its height about 1791-92. The people were forced to feed on leaves and berries, and women and children were sold or deserted. No measures were taken by the Government of the day to relieve the sufferers. The next famine was in 1802-1803, occasioned by the immigration of people from the valley of the Godávari and the march of the Peshwá's army through the country. In 1832, from want of rain, prices ruled very high, but the distress cannot be said to have amounted to famine. Owing to successive bad seasons, famines occurred in the years 1866 and 1877, and it was found necessary to employ large bodies of people on works of public utility.

Trade, etc.—In no part of the Bombay Presidency has more been done of late years to improve communications than in Dhárwár. Thirty years ago, there were neither roads nor carts. In 1874-75, the number of carts was returned at 38,608, and about 1000 miles of road were kept in sufficient repair to allow a spring carriage to be driven over them. The District lies inland, and no railway passes through it. It is connected with the ports of Coompta, Kárwár, and Vingorla by excellent roads, the distance from the western frontier to the sea being about 100 miles. On the east, a road runs to the railway station of Bellary, in the Madras Presidency. The distance of Bellary from the Dhárwár frontier is also about 100 miles.

No returns of the internal trade of the District are available. Cotton is the chief article of export, and European goods, chillies, cocoa-nuts, molasses, and betel-nuts are imported from Kanara and Mysore. The local trade in *joári* is also considerable.

The manufactures consist of cotton and silk cloth, and the usual household utensils and ornaments. Common silk and cotton cloth are woven to a considerable extent in all the large towns. Fabrics of delicate texture and tasteful design are occasionally produced. Fine cotton carpets are manufactured at Nawalgund, both for home consumption and for export to the neighbouring Districts. The wild aloe grows well, and the manufacture of matting from its fibre has been carried on at the jail with success. In the city of Dhárwár there is also a considerable manufacture of glass bangles. Blocks of blue and green glass in a rough state are imported from Bellary and remelted in crucibles, made of a species of clay brought from Khánápur, in Belgáum. During eight months of the year (October to June) iron smelting is carried on in small furnaces in parts of the District, but want of fuel prevents any extension of this industry.

At present (1876) the majority of the traders are local capitalists, a few representing firms in Bombay and other important places. Except a few Pársís in the town of Dhárwár, they are by caste generally Bráhmans or Lingáyats, a few being Muhammadans, Gújars, etc. Porters and other unskilled labourers earn from 4½d. to 6d. a day, agricultural labourers from 3d. to 4½d., bricklayers and carpenters from 1s. to 1s. 6d. Female labourers earn about one-third less than males. Lads of from twelve to fifteen get about two-thirds less than full-grown men. The current prices of the chief articles of food in Dhárwár during 1875 were—for a rupee (2s.), wheat, 41 lbs.; rice, 36 lbs.; *joári* (Holcus sorghum), 45 lbs.; *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), 47 lbs.; and *dál* or pulse, 37 lbs.

Administration.—The District is divided into 11 *táluks* or Subdivisions, and into 3 *petas* or larger fiscal units. The administration of revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 5 Assistants, of whom

are covenanted civil servants. For the settlement of civil disputes there were, in 1874, 4 courts, including the court of the District Judge. The number of cases decided was 2575, the average value of the property under litigation being £18, 4s. Thirty-one officers, including 6 Europeans, shared the administration of criminal justice; of these 6 were magistrates of the first-class. In the year 1874, the total strength of the District or regular police force was 793 officers and men, of whom 43 were paid from local funds and 750 from imperial revenue. The total cost of maintaining this force was £12,373, 14s., of which £453, 12s. was debited to local funds. These figures show one policeman to every 5·75 square miles as compared with the area, and 1 to every 1246 persons as compared with the population; the cost of maintenance was £2, 14s. 2d. per square mile, or 3d. per head of the population. There is 1 jail at Dhárwár town, in which 523 male and 43 female prisoners were confined in 1874. The District contains 29 post offices and 3 telegraph offices, viz. at Dhárwár, Hubli, and Gadag-Betigeri.

In 1874-75, the land tax of the District was £195,951. The local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded a sum of £21,495. There are 6 municipalities in the District; their total receipts in 1874-75 amounted to £7703, and their expenditure to £8548. The incidence of municipal taxation varied from 7½d. to 1s. 4d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is, for both natives and Europeans, about the healthiest in the Bombay Presidency. In December and January, dews are heavy and general. From February to the middle of April is the hot season; and from the latter date to the beginning of June, when the regular rainy season sets in, showers are frequent. Except in November and December, when strong winds blow from the east, the prevailing winds are from the west, south-west, and south-east. The average maximum temperature for the hot months (March to May) is 93° F.; the maximum for the rainy season (June to October), 83°; the maximum for the cold season (November to February), 84° F. For a series of years from 1852 to 1861, the average annual rainfall was 31·39 inches; between 1862 to 1871, the average fell to 20·68 inches; and in 1875, 21·78 inches were registered.

There are 2 dispensaries and a hospital at Dhárwár town. During 1874-75, 16,654 persons in all were treated, of whom 16,361 were out-door and 293 in-door patients. There is also a lunatic asylum at Dhárwár.

In the year 1873-74, there were 136 Government schools, or an average of 5 schools for every 48 villages, with an attendance of 5978 pupils. There were, besides, 8 grant-in-aid schools, with an average daily attendance of 364 pupils. Of the total expenditure on education, £2463 was debited to imperial, and £4098 to local and other funds. In Dhárwár town there is 1 library, and 3 local newspapers are published.

Dhárwár.—The chief town of the District of t situated in lat. 15° 27′ N., and long. 75° 3′ 20″ E. Ar suburbs, 3 square miles; pop. (1872), 27,136. The undulating ground. Towards the west low hills run do forming the last spurs of the Western Gháts. The fort almost hidden from view on the east by trees and risin approach from the south is striking. The highest point the Collector's office, from which a commanding vie suburbs, and surrounding country is obtained. Below adjacent to it is the temple of Ulvi-Basapa, and bey Máilargud, formerly considered the key to the fort of yond the town extensive plains of black soil stretch hills of Nawalgund and Nargund on the east, and on t the famous hills of Yellama (a Hindu deity) and Parsa the south-east, the hill of Mulgund appears at the dis 36 miles. There is no authentic evidence of the fort was founded. A *purána* or legendary chronicle origin of the neighbouring temple of Sameshwar makes Dhárwár. According to local tradition, the fort was fo by one Dhár Ráo, an officer in the Forest Department, un the Hindu King of Anigundi. The Anigundi kingdom by Mahammad Adíl Sháh of Bijápur in 1568 A.D. In fort was captured by the Mughal Emperor of Delhi; and fell into the hands of the Marhattás. In 1778, Dhár by Haidar Alí, the Muhammadan usurper of Mysore; it was retaken by a British force auxiliary to the Marha final overthrow of the Peshwá, Dhárwár, with the other that potentate, fell to the disposal of the British Gove fort is described as being well planned and naturally stro to 1857 it was kept in repair. Since then it has been b like all other forts in the District, it is now fast falling into

The town, which is very straggling, is made up of *mahâls.* There are few good houses with upper storeys. held every Tuesday. The only monument of historic that erected in memory of Mr. St. John Thackeray and Mr who were killed at Kittur in 1824. About a mile and a Dhárwár is a hill called the Máilargud; on its summit st square stone temple, built after the Jain fashion, and fa The columns and beams are of massive stone, and the roo material is handsomely carved. On one of the columns is in Persian, recording that the temple was converted into 1680 by the deputy of the King of Bijápur. In 1851, th tained a total population of 21,774, which in 1872 rose The only prosperous classes of the population are the B

Lingáyats. The influential Bráhmans are generally public officers, *vakíls, zamíndárs*, and *saukárs*. The Lingáyats are, as a rule, traders, who almost monopolize the export of cotton, timber, and grain. Some of the Musalmáns are also wealthy merchants. A few Pársís and Márwárís, who have recently settled in the town, deal chiefly in European goods. The chief articles of export are cotton and rice; the imports comprise English piece-goods, chillies, cocoa-nuts, molasses, dates, betel-nut, groceries, indigo, lead, zinc, and wrought and unwrought copper and brass. There are no manufacturing industries of any importance; but in the jail, carpets, table-linen, cloths, and cane articles,—all of superior quality,—are made by the prisoners. In 1875, the municipal income amounted to £1680, and the expenditure to £1728; the incidence of municipal taxation being 9⅞d. per head. The water supply is drawn from two *honds* or reservoirs. There are also several wells in the town, but with one or two exceptions they are not used for drinking purposes, the water being brackish. The native quarter was formerly unhealthy; but since the introduction of the Municipal Act, some attention has been paid to drainage and sanitary requirements.

Dhasán.—River of Central India, rising in Bhopál, in lat. 23° 30′ N., and long. 78° 32′ E., a few miles north of Sírmau, at an elevation of 2000 feet. After a course of 10 or 12 miles, it enters Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; through which it flows for 60 miles, and then runs along the southern boundary of Lálitpur District, North-Western Provinces; finally, after a course of 220 miles, falling into the BETWA. On the road between Ságar (Saugor) and Ráhatgarh, the Dhasán is crossed by a stone bridge.

Dhathwai-Kyouk.—An unnavigable river in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It rises in the southern slopes of the Tshenglan spur, and flows south and west into the Zay, which it joins just before that river enters the Engma Lake. The lower portion of its course is through rice-fields; but higher up it flows through forests, producing valuable timber, such as *pyenggado*, *eng-gyeng*, *bhanbhwai* (Careya arborea), and *eng*.

Dhathwai-Kyouk.—Village in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 41′ N., long. 95° 34′ 35″ E. Situated on the river of the same name, 20 miles south-east of Prome, and near the great rice tract, which occupies the centre of the valley between the Pegu Mountains and the Prome Hills. The inhabitants are mainly agriculturists.

Dhaulágirí.—Mountain in Nepál. Lat. 29° 11′ N., long. 82° 59′ E. One of the loftiest peaks of the Himálayas; height, 27,600 feet above sea level.

Dhauleshvaram.—Town, Godávari District, Madras.—*See* DOWLAISHVARAM.

Dhaurahra.—*Parganá* of Nighásan *tahsíl*, Kheri District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the Kauriála, on the east by the Dahávar, and on the south by the Chauka rivers; the western boundary is Nighásan *parganá*. In early times, prior to the Muhammadan conquest of Kanauj, Dhaurahra was the freehold property of Alha and Udal, the famous generals of Mahoba. It then formed a part of Garh Kilá Nawá, which was settled and visited by Firoz Sháh, and was probably owned by Pásis, whose Rájá lived at Dhaurahra. The Bisens held this tract during the decline of the Mughal power; but they were displaced by the Chauhán Jángres, who now own it. First constituted a *parganá* by Nawáb Safdár Jang. It consists of alluvial deposits from the Kauriála and Chauka rivers, and is annually inundated. The inhabitants suffer much from fever, and cultivation is very backward. Soil principally loam and clay, rather sandy towards the Chauka. Area, 261 square miles, of which 145 are cultivated and 72 cultivable. The 117 villages which the *parganá* comprises are held in *tálukdárí* tenure by 18 proprietors. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 64,877; Muhammadans, 5920; total, 70,797, viz. 38,093 males and 32,704 females. The roads consist merely of rough bridle-paths, crossing the rivers by ferries. Communication principally by the Kauriála, Dahávar, and Chauka rivers; by means of which, during ten months of the year, a brisk trade is carried on in grain and oil-seeds.

Dhaurahra.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; 3 miles west of the Chauka river, 80 miles north of Lucknow, and 73 miles east of Sháhjahánpur. Lat. 28° N., long. 81° 9′ E.; pop. (1869), 2722 Hindus and 1534 Muhammadans—total, 4256, residing in 845 mud houses. During the Mutiny of 1857, the fugitives from Sháhjahánpur and Muhamdi, escaping towards Lucknow, sought the protection of the Dhaurahra Rájá; but he, on pressure from the rebel leaders, gave them up to their enemies. For this he was afterwards tried and hanged, and his estates confiscated.

Dhaurahra.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzabad) District, Oudh; 4 miles from the Gogra river, and 20 miles from Faizábád town on the road to Lucknow. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 3197, of whom 765 are Kshattriyas; and Musalmáns, 82; total, 3279. It contains neither temple, mosque, nor school; but a handsome gateway, said to have been built by a king of Oudh, Asaf-ud-daulá, stands just outside the town. On the opposite side of Dhaurahra is an ancient Hindu shrine, shaded by a magnificent grove of tamarind trees. A Hindu legend relates that Mahádeo once lived here, his body being buried in the earth. A party of religious mendicants on their way to Ajodhya conceived the idea of digging out the holy man and exhibiting him for gain. As they dug, however, his head sank into the earth, and the party fled in horror. To commemorate the miracle, a dome, surrounded by a masonry platform and

a wall, was constructed over the spot by two devout merchants. The place is now almost in ruins.

Dhenkánal.—Tributary State of Orissa, Bengal. Lat. 20° 31′ to 21° 11′ 30″ N., long. 85° 3′ to 86° 5′ E.; area, 1463 square miles; pop. (1872), 178,072. Bounded on the north by Pál Lahára and Keunjhar, on the east by Cuttack District and Athgarh, on the south by Tigariá and Hindol, and on the west by Tálcher and Pál Lahára, the Bráhmaní forming the boundary for a considerable distance. This river runs from west to east, through a richly cultivated valley, affording a waterway for trade. Cultivable waste land abounds. Iron is plentifully found, but is only worked on a small scale. A petty trade in cochineal is also carried on. Chief village, also the residence of the Rájá, Dhenkánal, situated in lat. 20° 39′ 45″ N., long. 85° 38′ 16″ E. Weekly markets, for the sale of country produce, are held at Hodipur and Sadáipur villages. Of the total population, 141,421, or 79·4 per cent., are Hindus; 416, or ·2 per cent., Muhammadans; other races, 36,235, or 20·4 per cent. Of the aboriginal tribes (31,195, or 17·7 per cent. of population), the Savars (15,934) are the most numerous; of the semi-Hinduized aborigines (32,827, or 18·3 per cent.), the Páns (24,099) form the great majority. Average density of population, 122 per square mile; average number of villages, ·52; of persons per village, 233; of houses per square mile, 24; of persons per house, 5·1. Estimated annual revenue, £7010; tribute payable to Government, £509; military force, 286 men; rural police, 742. Eight schools were maintained by the late chief, attended in 1872 by 235 pupils; in addition, 17 *páthsálás*, or indigenous village schools, were also open in that year. Dhenkánal is the best organized and most prosperous of the Orissa Tributary States. The late chief received the title of Mahárájá in 1869, in recognition of his moderation and justice towards his people, and of his liberality in the Orissa famine of 1866.

Dhobá.—Mountain peak in the Pratápgiri estate, Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 20° N., long. 84° 23′ E. It forms part of the Eastern Ghát range, 8 miles distant from Dimrigiri. Height, 4166 feet above the sea. A station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey.

Dhobákhál.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam; on the Someswarí river, near which a fine outcrop of the coal strata was discovered in 1873 by the officers of the Survey. Lat. 25° 28′ N., long. 90° 46′ E.

Dhodár Alí.—One of the most important of the raised roads or embankments constructed in Assam by forced labour during the rule of the Aham dynasty. It runs parallel to the Brahmaputra through the entire length of Sibságar District, for a distance of about 115 miles, of which 35 miles are under the supervision of the Public Works Department.

Dhola.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £150, of which £32 is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda and £5 to Junágarh.

Dholbájá.—Large village in Purniah District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 16′ N., long. 87° 19′ 21″ E.; pop. (1872), 1784. Situated on the Matiyári road, 40 miles distant from Purniah town and 16 miles from Basantpur. Primary school.

Dholera.—Seaport in the Dhanduka Subdivision, Ahmedábád District, Bombay; 62 miles south-west of Ahmedábád. Lat. 22° 14′ 45″ N., and long. 72° 15′ 25″ E.; pop. (1872), 12,468. Situated in the swampy tract extending along the west of the Gulf of Cambay, within the limits of the Peninsula of Káthiáwár. The space between the town and the port, a distance of about 4 miles, is traversed by a tramway constructed by a company of native speculators. Post office and dispensary. Dholera has given the trade name to a quality of cotton well known in the European market.

Dholka.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Ahmedábád District, Bombay; 25 miles south-west of Ahmedábád. Lat. 22° 43′ 30″ N., long. 72° 28′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 20,854; municipal revenue (1874-75), £1688; rate of taxation, 1s. 7d. per head. Dholka is situated amidst ruined palaces, mosques, mausoleums, and spacious tanks, embanked and lined with masonry. Though not regularly fortified, it is surrounded by a wall of mud 4 miles in circumference. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Dholpur.—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of that Agency and the Government of India, lying between 26° 22′ and 26° 57′ N. lat., and between 77° 26′ and 78° 19′ E. long.; area, 1174 square miles. It extends from north-east to south-west for a length of 72 miles, with an average breadth of 16 miles. Dholpur is bounded on the east and north by the British District of Agra, from which it is for the most part divided by the Bánganga river; on the south by the river Chambal, which separates it from the State of Gwalior; on the west by the States of Karáulí (Kerowlee) and Bhartpur (Bhurtpore).

Physical Aspects.—The Chambal flows from south-west to north-east for over 100 miles through Dholpur territory. During the dry weather, it is here a sluggish stream 300 yards wide, and lies 170 feet below the level of the surrounding country. In the rains, it rises generally about 70 feet above its summer level; its breadth is then increased by more than 1000 yards, and it runs at the rate of 5½ miles an hour. It is bordered everywhere by a labyrinth of ravines, some of which are 90 feet deep, and extend to a distance of from 2 to 4 miles from the river bank. The Chambal is unnavigable on account of its rapid changes of

level. The most important crossing is that at Rájghát, 3 miles south of the town of Dholpur, on the high road between Agra and Bombay. A bridge of boats is kept up between 1st November and the 15th June, and a large ferry-boat plies during the rest of the year. A permanent bridge is now in course of construction, at about 5 miles from the town of Dholpur, for the Sindhia State Railway between Agra and Gwalior. The Bánganga or Utangan river runs for about 40 miles between the northern boundary of Dholpur and the British District of Agra; its bed is about 40 feet below the surrounding country. The other rivers are the Párbatí, which rises in Karáulí (Kerowlee), and, traversing the State in a north-easterly direction, falls into the Bánganga; and its two tributaries, the Mirka and Mírki. These three streams dry up in the hot season, leaving only occasional pools where the channels are deep. The general nature of the soil being a friable alluvium overlying a stratum of stiff yellow clay, the beds of all the rivers in Dholpur are considerably below the general level of the country.

A ridge of red sandstone, with an elevation of from 560 to 1074 feet above sea level, runs over 60 miles through the State in the direction of its greatest length. It affords a very valuable stone for building purposes, fine grained and easily worked in the quarries; it hardens by exposure to the weather, and does not deteriorate by lamination. The railway bridge over the Chambal, above alluded to, is being built entirely of this stone. *Kankar* or nodular limestone is found in many places in the ravines leading to the rivers, and a bed of excellent limestone occurs on the banks of the Chambal, near the Agra and Bombay road. The soil is everywhere poor on the sandstone, and in its immediate vicinity; but it becomes richer and more fertile in proportion to the increase of distance from the ridge. In the north and north-west, the soil is for the most part a mixture of sand and clay, known as *domat*, which is as productive as the best land in Agra District. To the north-east, an area of about 90 square miles is covered with black soil, similar to that of Bundelkhand, yielding excellent cold weather crops. Dholpur is a grain-producing country, and is not remarkable for any special manufactures. The chief crops raised are *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), *moth*, and *joár* (Holcus sorghum); and in the cold season a considerable quantity of wheat and barley is grown. Cotton and rice are also produced. Irrigation is carried on by means of tanks and wells, the average depth at which water is found being 25 feet. Of the total area of the State (751,216 acres), about 36·4 per cent. was under cultivation in 1876; about 17·3 per cent. was cultivable but uncultivated. This is not first-rate land, and it has been lying fallow since the famine of 1868-69; but as the people, year by year, gradually regain their normal condition, it is being once more broken

up. About 43·3 per cent. of the country is barren, and about 3 per cent. is occupied by villages, rivers, tanks, etc.

The land tenures are in most respects similar to those of the North-Western Provinces, with this important exception, that in Dholpur, as under other Native Governments, the chief is the absolute owner of the land. The *zamíndárs*, or *lambardárs* as they are more usually termed, are persons (generally descendants of the original founders of the village) who contract with the State for the payment of the revenue demand, which they collect from the cultivators. So long as they observe their contract, they are considered as owners of the land actually cultivated by them and by their tenants, and also of uncultivated land sufficient for the grazing of the village cattle. The remainder of the untilled land, with its produce, groves, tanks, etc., belongs to the State.

Population.—A rough Census of the population was taken during the survey of the State in 1876. The returns show a total of 227,976 inhabitants. It may be surmised, however, that these numbers do not give the whole population, and that the Census was not accurately taken, especially as regards the number of women. Perhaps the population of the State may be reckoned at 250,000, or about 213 inhabitants to the square mile. The most numerous classes are at two extremes of the social scale — Bráhmans, 36,884, and Chamárs, 32,092. Thákurs number 23,703; Gújars, 17,229; Kachhis, 15,090; Minás, 10,620; and Lodhás, 8050. The remainder of the population is divided among 75 other castes. There are 9964 Muhammadans, who reside for the most part in the towns of Bári and Dholpur. The people generally are engaged in tilling the land, and the whole country is agricultural. The dominant religion is Hinduism of the Vishnuvite sect. In 1876, 8 schools, with 509 pupils, were maintained in the larger towns of the State. In one of these, English, Persian, and Hindí were taught; in four, Persian and Hindí; and in three, Hindí only. The Dholpur jail is managed on a system in great measure similar to that obtaining in British jails throughout India.

The Trunk Road from Agra to Bombay runs through the State from north to south, passing by Dholpur town. There were in 1877 no other metalled roads but a few fair-weather tracks—one leading from Dholpur by Rájá Khera to Agra; a second with a main direction west from Dholpur to Bári, and thence to Bhartpur on one side and Karáulí on the other; a third having a main direction to the north-east from Dholpur to Kolári and Baseri, and thence to Karáulí.

The Sindhia State Railway, in course of construction between Agra and Gwalior, runs through the State in a direction generally parallel to the Grand Trunk Road. It will cross the Chambal by a bridge of 12 spans of 200 feet each, about 112 feet above the river bed.

Administration.—The land revenue of Dholpur in 1876 amounted to £76,339. Customs and other sources of revenue brought up the gross total to £106,869. The land, which had not been surveyed since 1570, in the reign of Akbar, was resurveyed in 1875-76, preparatory to a re-settlement which is to be conducted on a basis similar to that of the North-Western Provinces, but simpler in its details.

The climate is generally healthy. The hot winds blow steadily and strongly during the months of April, May, and June. The annual rainfall averages from 27 to 30 inches.

History.—According to local tradition, Dholpur derives its name from Rájá Dholan Deo Tonwár (of the ancient Tomar or Tonwár dynasty of Delhi), who about 1004 A.D. held the country between the Chambal and Bánganga rivers. Very little is authoritatively known of the country until the Musalmán conquests, with which it became early incorporated. After the death of Aurangzeb, Rájá Kalián Sinh Bhadauriyá, taking advantage of the troubles which beset the Emperor on every side, obtained possession of the Dholpur territory. The Bhadauriyás remained undisturbed till 1761, when the Jat Rájá Suraj Mall of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore), after the battle of Pánipat, seized upon Agra and overran the country. During the succeeding forty-five years, Dholpur changed masters no less than five times. In 1775, it shared the fate of the rest of the Bhurtpore possessions, which were seized by Mírzá Najaf Khán. On the death of Mírzá in 1782, it fell into the hands of Sindhia. At the outbreak of the Marhattá war in 1803, it was occupied by the British, by whom, in accordance with the treaty of Sarji Anjengáon, it was, at the end of the year, ceded to the Gwalior chief. In 1805, under fresh arrangements with Daulat Ráo Sindhia, it was resumed by the English, who in 1806, finally uniting the territories of Dholpur, Bári, and Rájá Khera with Sír Muttra into one State, made it over to Mahárāná Kirat Sinh (the ancestor of the present chief of Dholpur) in exchange for his territory of Gohad, which was given up to Sindhia. The reigning family of Dholpur are Játs of the Bamráolia family, belonging to the Deswáli tribe, which claims a very ancient lineage. The ancestor of the family is said to have been in possession of lands at Bamráoli near Agra in 1195, from which circumstance they have taken their name. They joined the side of the Rájputs against the Musalmáns, and received a grant of the territory of Gohad, whence the title of Ráná was assumed. This is said to have occurred in 1505 A.D. They appear to have become connected with Bájí Ráo Peshwá; and in 1761, when the Marhattás had been completely defeated at Pánipat, Ráná Bhím Sinh seized the fort of Gwalior. In 1777, Sindhia besieged and took the fortress. In order to form a barrier against the Marhattás, Warren Hastings in 1779 made a treaty with the Ráná, and the joint forces of the English and the Ráná retook Gwalior. In 1781, a treaty with

Sindhia stipulated for the integrity of the Gohad territories; but after the treaty of Salbye, the Mahárána was abandoned, on the ground that he had been guilty of treachery, and Sindhia repossessed himself of Gohad and Gwalior. The Rána went into exile, until Lord Wellesley's policy against the Marhattás again brought him forward, when the territories of Dholpur were made over to Kirat Sinh in 1804. But in 1805, Lord Cornwallis retransferred Gohad and Gwalior to Sindhia, leaving to the Rána the lands which he still possesses. Kirat Sinh's successor, Bhagwant Sinh, showed a loyal attachment to the British Government, especially during the Mutiny of 1857, for which he received the insignia of K.C.S.I. He died in 1873, and was succeeded by his grandson, the present chief, Mahárájá Rána Nihál Sinh, born in 1863, whose mother is a sister of the Rájá of Patiála. The Rána of Dholpur is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The military force of the State consists of 600 cavalry, 3650 infantry, 32 field guns, and 100 gunners.

Dholpur.—The capital of the State of the same name, situated in lat. 26° 42′ N., and long. 77° 56′ E., on the Grand Trunk Road between Agra and Bombay, about 34 miles south of Agra and 37 miles north-west of Gwalior. In 1875, it contained 3337 houses, with a population estimated at 15,000. Three miles south of Dholpur, the Chambal river is crossed at Rájghát by a bridge of boats between the 1st November and the 15th June, and by ferry during the rest of the year. The Sindhia State Railway between Agra and Delhi will pass through Dholpur, and the railway bridge across the Chambal is within a distance of 5 miles. The original town is supposed to have been built by Rájá Dholan Deo in the beginning of the 11th century. The Emperor Bábar mentions Dholpur, and states that it surrendered to him in 1526. His son, Prince Humáyun, is said to have moved the site farther to the north, in order to avoid the encroachments of the Chambal river. An enclosed, and to some extent fortified, *sarái* was built in the reign of Akbar. The new portion of the town and the palace of the Rána were built by Rána Kirat Sinh, the great-grandfather of the present chief. A fair is held here for fifteen days in the latter part of October, when a large traffic in merchandise, cattle, and horses is carried on. Goods are brought from Delhi, Agra, Cawnpore, and Lucknow.

Dhol Samudrá.—Marsh in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated to the south-east of the Civil Station. During the rains it expands into a lake about 8 miles in circumference, the water extending close to the houses of Farídpur town. In the cold weather it gradually dwindles, and in the hot season is only a mile or two in circumference.

Dholurwa.—One of the petty States in South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £200 per annum, of which £10 is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda and £2 to Junágarh.

Dhoráji.—Fortified town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 45′ N., long. 70° 37′ E.; 43 miles south-west of Rájkot, and 52 miles east of Porbandar; pop. (1872), 15,562.

Dhrángadrá.—Native State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat (Gujarát), Bombay. It lies inland between 22° 30′ and 23° N. lat., and between 71° and 71° 49′ E. long., and contains 125 villages; pop. (1872), 87,949; gross revenue, £30,000. An uneven tract intersected by small streams, and consisting of hilly and rocky ground, where stone is quarried. With the exception of a small extent of rich black loam, the soil is of inferior quality. The climate is hot, but healthy. The principal crops are cotton and the common varieties of grain. The manufactures are salt, copper and brass vessels, stone handmills, cloth, and pottery. There are no made roads, but the country tracks admit of the passage of bullock-carts. DHOLERA, about 70 miles to the south-east of Dhrángadrá town, in Ahmedábád District, is the nearest port. There are 15 schools, with 550 pupils. The chief of Dhrángadrá entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. Among the small chieftains of Káthiáwár, he holds the position of a ruler of a first-class State, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. The present chief (1875) is thirty-eight years of age. He is a Hindu, a Rájput by caste of the Jhálá stock. His name is Mán Sinhjí, and his title Rájá Sáhib. He pays to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh an annual tribute of £4467, and maintains a military force of 470 men. He holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption, but the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. He has power of life and death over his own subjects. The Jhálá family is of great antiquity, and is said to have entered Káthiáwár from the north, and to have established itself first at Pátri, in the Viramgám Subdivision of Ahmedábád District, whence it moved to Halwad, and finally to its present seat. The greater part of this territory would seem at one time to have been annexed by the Muhammadan rulers of Guzerat. Subsequently, during the reign of the Emperor Aurangzeb (1658-1707), the Subdivision of Halwad, then called Muhammadnagar, was restored to the Jhálá family. The petty States of Limri, Wadhwán, Chura, Sayla, and Thán-Lakhtár in Káthiáwár are offshoots from Dhrángadrá; and the house of Wánkáner claims to be descended from an elder branch of the same race.

Dhrángadrá.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Káthiáwár, in political connection with Bombay. Lat. 22° 59′ 10″ N., long. 71° 31′ E.; 75 miles west of Ahmedábád; pop. (1872), 10,954. The town is fortified.

Dhrol.—Native State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay; situated between 22° 14′ and 22° 42′ N. lat., and between 70° 24′ and 70° 45′ E. long. It lies inland, and contains

61 villages; estimated area, 400 square miles; pop. (1872), 18,321. The country is for the most part undulating and rocky. The soil is generally light, and irrigated by water drawn from wells and rivers by means of leather bags. The climate, though hot in the months of April, May, and October, is generally healthy. The crops are sugar-cane and the ordinary varieties of grain. Coarse cotton cloth is manufactured to a small extent. There are no made roads, but the country tracks permit the passage of carts. The produce is chiefly exported from Juriá, a town on the coast. The gross revenue is estimated at £15,000. There are 3 schools, with 145 pupils. Dhrol ranks as a second-class State among the States in Káthiáwár. The ruler entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The present (1875) chief, named Jesinhji, is fifty-one years of age; he is a Rájput by caste of the Járejá branch, with the title of Thákur. He holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption, but the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. He pays a tribute of £1023, 2s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda and the Nawáb of Junágarh, and maintains a military force of 148 men. He has power of life and death over his own subjects.

Dhrol.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Bombay; situated in lat. 22° 34′ N., and long. 70° 30′ E.

Dhubrí.—Subdivision in Goálpára District, Assam. Pop. (1872), 187,589.

Dhubrí.—Headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name in Goálpára District, Assam; situated in lat. 26° 2′ N., and long. 90° 2′ E., on the right bank of the Brahmaputra, at the point where that river leaves the valley of Assam, and turns south to enter the plains of Bengal. Pop. (1872), 477. Dhubrí is also the headquarters of the executive engineer of the Lower Assam Division; and as the terminus of the emigration road running through Northern Bengal, and a stopping place for Assam steamers, the town is rapidly rising in importance. It is also proposed to make Dhubrí the terminus of a branch of the Northern Bengal State Railway. A steam ferry crosses the Brahmaputra to Goálpára town. A trading fair held here in January is annually attended by about 10,000 people, many of whom come from considerable distances.

Dhude.—Petty State, Bombay.—*See* DANG STATES.

Dhulápra.—*Jhíl*, or natural reservoir in Sahåranpur District, North-Western Provinces. In connection with the drainage arrangements of the Eastern Jumna Canal, a cut has been made from this *jhíl* for purposes of reclamation; but up to the end of 1873, only 272 *bighás* had been reclaimed.

Dhuliá.—Chief town of Khandesh District, Bombay, and headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name; situated in lat. 20° 54′ N., and long. 74° 46′ 30″ E., on the southern bank of the Pánjhra river, and on

the line of the Bombay and Agra road. Area, including suburbs, 1 square mile; houses, 2620; pop. (1872), 12,489; municipal revenue (1874-75), £1768; rate of taxation, 2s. 9¾d. per head. The town is divided into New and Old Dhuliá. In the latter, the houses are irregularly built, the majority being of a very humble description. In 1872, Dhulia was visited by a severe flood, which did much damage to houses and property.

Until the beginning of the present century, Dhuliá was an insignificant village, subordinate to Láling, the capital of the Láling or Fatehábád Subdivision. Under the rule of the Nizám, Láling was incorporated with the District of Daulatábád. The fort of Láling occupies the summit of a high hill, about 6 miles from Dhuliá, overhanging the Agra road and the Avir Pass leading to Málegáon. This stronghold, like all ancient buildings in Khandesh, is locally ascribed to the Gauli Rájá, but it was more probably built by the Farrukhi kings, whose frontier fortress it subsequently became. To the same Arab princes may be attributed the numerous stone embankments for irrigation found throughout the country, of which those on the Pánjhra river above and below Dhuliá may be taken as the types. The old fort at Dhuliá is also assigned to this dynasty, but it was probably, like the village walls, restored and improved by the Mughal governors. The town appears to have passed successively through the hands of the Arab kings, the Mughals, and the Nizám, and to have fallen into the power of the Peshwá about 1795. In 1803, it was completely deserted by its inhabitants on account of the ravages of Holkár and the terrible famine of that year. In the following year, Balájí Balwant, a dependant of the Vinchurkar, to whom the *parganás* of Láling and Songír had been granted by the Peshwá, repeopled the town, and received from the Vinchurkar, in return for his services, a grant of *inám* land and other privileges. He was subsequently entrusted with the entire management of the territory of Songír and Láling, and fixed his headquarters at Dhuliá, where he continued to exercise authority till the occupation of the country by the British in 1818. Dhuliá was immediately chosen as the headquarters of the newly formed District of Khandesh by Captain Briggs. In January 1819, he obtained sanction for building public offices for the transaction of revenue and judicial business. Artificers were brought from distant places, and the buildings were erected at a total cost of £2700. Every encouragement was offered to traders and others to settle in the new town. Building sites were granted rent free in perpetuity, and advances were made both to the old inhabitants and strangers to enable them to erect substantial houses. At this time, Captain Briggs described Dhuliá as a small town, surrounded by garden cultivation, and shut in between an irrigation channel and the river. In 1819, the population numbered only 2509 persons, living in 401

houses. In 1863, there were 10,000 inhabitants; while by 1872 the number had further increased to 12,489. From the date of its occupation by the British, the progress of Dhuliá appears to have been steady; but it is only since the recent development of the trade in cotton and linseed that the town has become of any great importance as a trading centre. Coarse cotton and woollen cloth and turbans are manufactured for local use. Since 1872 a little colony of Musalmáns from Allahábád, Benares, and Lucknow have settled at Dhuliá, who say that they have left their own homes on account of poverty. They are Momins by caste, and declare themselves orthodox Muhammadans, but their co-religionists in Dhuliá take them to be Wahábis. They support themselves by weaving *sáris* of fine texture, which they sell at a lower rate than the local merchants. Dhuliá is a cantonment town, and possesses 2 hospitals, telegraph and post offices. There were in 1873-74, 4 Government schools, with 551 pupils.

Dhulián.—Village in Murshidábád District, Bengal; situated on the Ganges. Site of an annual fair, and one of the most important river marts in the District. Large trade in rice, pulses, gram, wheat, and other food grains.

Dhulípnagar.—Town and cantonment in Bannu District, Punjab. —*See* EDWARDESABAD.

Dhurwái.—One of the petty States in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. The founder of the family was Rái Sinh, a descendant of Bír Sinh Deo, Rájá of Orchhá, who held the territory of Báragáon. He divided it amongst his eight sons, whence their *jagírs* were called the Hasht-bhaya (or eight brothers). There now remain four, of which this is one. The present holder, Díwán Ranjúr Sinh, is a Hindu Bundela. Area of State, 18 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 8000; revenue, £1200.

Dhúsan.—River of Bengal.—*See* PARWAN.

Diamond Harbour.—Subdivision of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated between 21° 31′ and 22° 21′ 30″ N. lat., and between 88° 4′ and 88° 33′ 30″ E. long. Area, 417 square miles; villages, 1282; houses, 57,688. Total population (1872), 309,168, of whom 227,483, or 73·6 per cent., are Hindus; 79,404, or 25·7 per cent., Muhammadans; 2267, or ·7 per cent., Christians; and 14 of other religious denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 50 per cent.; number of persons per square mile, 741; villages per square mile, 3·07; persons per village, 241; houses per square mile, 138; inmates per house, 5·4. The Subdivision comprises the five police circles (*thánás*) of Diamond Harbour, Debípur, Bánkipur, Sultánpur, and Mathurápur; 1 magisterial court in 1871; police force, 112 men; village watch, 897 men; cost of Subdivisional administration, £7422. The cyclone of October 1864, with its accompanying storm

wave, caused a fearful destruction of life and property here. The greatest number of deaths occurred on Ságar Island, within Diamond Harbour Subdivision, and in the Sundarbans. Out of a population of 5625, only 1488 persons survived. It was estimated that in all the villages within one mile of the river the loss of life was 80 per cent., with a loss of cattle in the same proportion. The famine of 1866 also caused great distress in this Subdivision.

Diamond Harbour.—Port and headquarters of Diamond Harbour Subdivision, Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Húglí river, in lat. 22° 11′ 10″ N., long. 88° 13′ 37″ E. Well known as the anchorage of the Company's ships in olden times; now a telegraph station. A harbourmaster and customs establishment are maintained here to board vessels proceeding up the river, and the movements of all shipping up or down are telegraphed from Diamond Harbour, and published several times a day in the *Calcutta Telegraph Gazette.* But no town or even village has sprung up; and since the introduction of steam, few vessels have to wait here for the tide. The chief relic of its historical importance is its graveyard. Distant from Calcutta 30 miles by a good road, 41 by river.

Diamond Harbour Canal.—In Diamond Harbour Subdivision, Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; extending from Thákurpukur to Kholákháli, a distance of 23 miles.

Diamond Island.—A low wooded island, about 1 square mile in area, and visible at 5 leagues, lying off the mouth of the Bassein river, in Pegu, British Burma. Lat. 15° 51′ 30″ N., and long. 94° 18′ 45″ E. It is 50 miles distant from Pagoda Point, and about 8 miles from Negrais Island or Haing-gyí. In shape it is quadrilateral, its angles facing the points of the compass. During strong southerly gales, landing is difficult. This island appears to have been never inhabited by the Burmese, to whom it is known as Miemma-hla-kywon; but it is visited by those engaged in collecting the eggs of turtles, which are very abundant. Important as the home station of the Alguada Reef lighthouse-keeper, and connected with Bassein by telegraph.

Dibái. — Ancient town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; lat. 28° 12′ 30″ N., long. 78° 18′ 35″ E. Pop. (1872), 7782, being 4515 Hindus, and 3267 Muhammadans. Distant from Bulandshahr 26 miles south-east, and from Alígarh 26 miles north. Lies between the two head branches of the Chhoiya Nála, whose ravines form an efficient natural drainage-channel. Said to have been built about the time of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd Ghází, 1029 A.D., upon the ruins of Dhundgarh, a captured Rájput city. The old fort now does duty as an indigo factory. Trade has greatly declined, and the streets show evidences of former prosperity. A metalled road connects the town with Kaser Dibái station, on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway,

3 miles to the east. Market on Mondays, 4 *saráis*, Anglo-vernacular school-house, *bázár*, post office, police station.

Dibru (or *Sonápur*).—The name of two rivers in the Province of Assam, one of which, in the southern half of Kámrúp District, flows northwards into the Brahmaputra; the other, in the southern half of Lakhimpur, flows nearly parallel to the Brahmaputra for about 100 miles, and finally empties itself into that river just below the town of Dibrugarh, to which it has given its name.

Dibrugarh.—Subdivision in Lakhimpur District, Assam, comprising the two divisions formerly known as Matak and Sadiyá. Area, 2038 square miles; pop. (1872), 82,109.

Dibrugarh ('*Fort on the Dibru river*').—Chief town in Lakhimpur District, and headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, Assam; situated in lat. 27° 28′ 30″ N., and long. 94° 57′ 30″ E., on the Dibru river, about 4 miles above its confluence with the Brahmaputra. Pop. (1872), 3870, including 1096 in the military cantonment. Dibrugarh is the centre of an important river trade, as steamers can reach the town during the rainy season; at other times of the year they stop at Dibru-mukh, on the Brahmaputra. The exports are almost entirely confined to tea and caoutchouc; the imports comprise cotton goods, rice, salt, and oil. The headquarters of the 44th Light Infantry, numbering about 500 fighting men, are stationed in the cantonments.

Diddaur.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; on the banks of the Sai, 2 miles from the road from Bareli to Behar. A flourishing town, pleasantly situated among numerous groves, with a population in 1869 of 2123 Hindus (including 838 Kshattriyas), and 4 Muhammadans; total, 2127.

Díg (*Deeg*).—Town and fortress in Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) State, Central India. Lat. 27° 28′ N., and long. 77° 22′ E. Lies in a lonely marshy tract, amid numerous *jhíls* or shallow lakes, fed by the stream of the Mánás Nái. Almost inaccessible to an enemy during the greater part of the year, being nearly surrounded with water. Before being dismantled by the British, it possessed great strength, and its fort, 24 miles west of Muttra, still commands the whole town. The Rájá's palace, a remarkably beautiful building of massive sandstone blocks, decorated with oriental profusion, adjoins the citadel. Díg lays claim to great antiquity, being mentioned by name in the *Puránas*. Wrested from the Játs in 1776 by Najaf Khán, it reverted after his death to the Rájá of Bhartpur. On November 13, 1804, a British force, under General Fraser, defeated the army of Holkár; and the Játs having fired upon the conquerors, siege was laid to the town in the succeeding month, and it was carried by storm on the 23d. Dismantled after the capture of Bhartpur by Lord Combermere.

Digbijaiganj.—*Tahsil* or Subdivision of Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Haidargarh *tahsil* of Bára Bánki District, on the east by Musáfirkhána *tahsil* of Sultánpur, on the south by Salon and Rái Bareli *tahsils*, and on the west by Púrwa *tahsil* of Unao District. Lat. 26° 17′ 30″ to 26° 36′ N., long. 81° 1′ 30″ to 81° 37′ E. Area, 465 square miles, of which 219 are under cultivation; pop., according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent changes, 250,159 Hindus, 19,318 Muhammadans—total, 269,477, viz. 134,576 males and 134,901 females; number of villages or towns, 364; average density of population, 579 per square mile. The *tahsil* comprises the 6 *parganás* of Inhauná, Bachhráwán, Kumhráwán, Hardoi, Simráuta, and Mohánganj.

Dígnagar.—Village in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 22′ N., long. 87° 45′ E. Described by Jacquemont as a place of some importance; now a local market for grain and sugar.

Digras.—Town in Wún District, Berar. Lat. 20° 6′ N., long. 77° 45′ E.; 18 miles south of Dárwa. A small entrepôt for the cotton of the western half of the District. A few Bombay dealers come here during the cotton season to make purchases. Houses (small thatched huts), 639.

Digsár.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Gonda and Mahádewa, on the east by Nawábganj, on the south by the Gogra river, and on the west by Guwárich. A well-wooded plain, almost throughout covered with careful cultivation. The northern and western tracts are watered by the Tírhi; the centre, which has the richest soil, is drained by a number of small channels, and supports a denser population than is found in the north or south. The southern division, along the Gogra border, is generally marked by a light soil, and the cultivated spots are interspersed with large barren plains, overgrown with grass and scrub jungle. The whole *parganá* lies low, and is liable, after heavy rains, to destructive floods. Area, 157½ square miles, or 100,696 acres, of which 67,880 acres are under cultivation, nearly one-half yielding two crops in the year. Area under principal crops—rice, 14,773 acres; Indian corn, 19,590; wheat, 11,945; gram, 8665; *arhar*, 9075; and barley, 7060 acres. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 87,694, and Muhammadans, 2888—total, 90,582, viz. 46,306 males and 44,276 females; average density of population, 577 per square mile. No manufactures.

Dih.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; 12 miles from Bareli town, on the banks of the Sái. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 2766; Muhammadans, 171; total, 2937. Good *bázár*.

Dihang (or *Dihong*).—River in Lakhimpur District, Assam, one of the three which contribute to make up the BRAHMAPUTRA. It brings down the largest volume of water, and is generally regarded as the con-

tinuation of the Tsanpu or great river of Thibet, and thus the real parent of the Brahmaputra. It is supposed to pierce the barrier range of the Himálayas through a narrow gorge in the Abar Hills.

Dihing.—The name of two rivers in Lakhimpur District, Assam, which contribute to make up the waters of the Brahmaputra—(1) the Noá Dihing, rising in the Singpho Hills in the extreme eastern frontier of British territory, flows in a westerly direction into the main stream of the Brahmaputra just above Sadiyá; (2) the Burí Dihing, rises in the Pátkai Hills in the south-east corner of Lakhimpur District, and also flows in a westerly direction, past Jáipur town, and finally forms the boundary between Lakhimpur and Síbságar Districts before reaching the Brahmaputra. It is navigable up to Jáipur by steamers during the rainy season. The two rivers are connected by an artificial channel, passing near the village of Bishgáon. The valley of the Burí Dihing contains an extensive coal-field, with outcrops at Jáipur and Mákum. The total marketable out-turn is estimated at about 20 million tons, of excellent quality, and there are tolerable facilities for water-carriage. Petroleum also exists in abundance in the same tract. In 1866, both the coal and the petroleum were worked under a Government grant by a European capitalist, but on his death the enterprise was discontinued. In the years 1874-1876, the mineral resources of this tract were examined by an officer of the Geological Survey, and favourably reported on.

Diji (*Kot Diji*, also called *Ahmadábád*).—Fort in the Khairpur State, Sind. Lat. 27° 20′ 45″ N., long. 68° 45′ E. Of no importance as a place of strength.

Diláwár.—Fort in Baháwalpur State, Punjab. Lat. 28° 44′ N., long. 71° 14′ E. Situated in a desert, 40 miles from the left bank of the river Panjnad. Very difficult of access.

Dilli (*Delly*).—The correct name is d'Ely (Monte d'Ely of the Portuguese), representing the name of the ancient Malabar State of Hely or Hilí. Hill in the Cherakal *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 12° 2′ N., long. 75° 14′ E.; height, 800 feet above the sea. Situated on the coast, with creeks on either side, which, joining, make it an island. The fortifications, now in ruins, have been occupied at different periods by Dutch, French, and British troops. A station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey, and a prominent landmark for mariners, being visible in fine weather at 27 miles' distance. The jungle covering the hill and surrounding the base affords cover to large game, *sambhar*, panthers, etc., and is a favourite resort of sportsmen. A project set on foot for the construction of a harbour off this headland was abandoned on account of the enormous expense attending it. Dilli was the first Indian land seen by Vasco da Gama.

Dimápur.—Village in the Nágá Hills District, Assam; on the Dhaneswari river, 15 miles north of Samáguting. Here was one of the

early capitals of the Cáchári Rájás, the brick ruins of which are still to be found amid the jungle. It is now a police outpost, and the centre of some little trade with the Nágás, as the river is navigable up to this point by country boats. All around is wild jungle.

Dinájpur.—The District of Dinájpur occupies the west of the Rájsháhí Kuch Behar Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 24° 43′ 40″ and 26° 22′ 50″ N. lat., and between 88° 4′ 0″ and 89° 21′ 5″ E. long., being bounded roughly on the east by the Karátoyá, and on the west by the Mahánandá river. Area (according to Parliamentary Return, 1878), 4126 square miles; population (according to the Census of 1872), 1,501,924. The administrative headquarters are at DINAJPUR TOWN, on the left bank of the Purnábhábá.

Physical Aspects.—The District exhibits a less uniformly level appearance than the rest of Northern Bengal. The plain that stretches from the Himálayas to the Ganges is here represented by a peculiar clay formation, locally known as *khiár*, which is sufficiently stiff to resist the diluviating action of the rivers. In the southern part of the District, and again in the north-west along the Kulik river, this clay soil rises into undulating ridges, some of which attain the height of 100 feet. The entire country is intersected by numerous rivers, which run in well-defined channels and have deposited in their floods a later alluvium of sandy loam, called *palí*. The agriculture of the District is determined by the difference between these two kinds of soil. The river valleys are everywhere much wider than the narrow limits within which the streams are confined during the dry season. In the rains, the flood water spreads out into large lakes, about 2 miles across; but there are few permanent marshes of any size throughout the District. The clay ridges in the south are still much overgrown with scrub-jungle, which affords cover to numerous wild beasts, and yields but little forest produce of any value.

The rivers in Dinájpur arrange themselves into two systems, one of which carries off the drainage southwards by the Mahánandá into Maldah District, while the other is connected with the old Tístá river, and flows in a south-easterly direction towards Bográ and Rájsháhí. The MAHANANDA itself only skirts the western frontier of the District for about 30 miles; its chief tributaries are the NAGAR, TANGAN, and PURNABHABA. All these rivers are only navigable for large boats during the rains. They run through the *khiár* country, along shallow valleys, bordered by elevated clay ridges. The TISTA river system has been much broken up by the violent changes which took place in the course of the main channel towards the close of the last century. The various channels of the old Tístá still flowing through Dinájpur, are now known as the ATRAI, JAMUNA, and KARATOYA. Their value for boat traffic has

been greatly lessened by the circumstance that the great volume of the water now finds its way eastwards into the Brahmaputra. There are several short artificial canals in the District; but some of them appear to have been dug with a view to facilitate religious processions, rather than as a means of assisting trade.

History.—Dinájpur District, with the rest of Bengal, passed under British rule in 1765, and has no independent history of its own.

Population.—In the beginning of the present century, Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in the course of his statistical inquiries, arrived at a most elaborate estimate of the population of Dinájpur. His calculations yielded a total of about 3 millions, or 558 persons to the square mile. The District was then about one-third larger than at present. During the Revenue Survey (1857-61), when the area of the District was also somewhat larger than now, the number of houses was counted, and the inhabitants living therein were estimated to number 1,042,832, or only 227 per square mile. It seems probable that this latter estimate was as much too low, as Dr. B. Hamilton's estimate must have been too high. The Census of 1872, which was not taken simultaneously in a single night, as in other Bengal Districts, disclosed a total population of 1,501,924 persons, residing in 7108 *mauzás* or villages, and in 264,526 houses. The area was taken at 4126 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 364; villages per square mile, 1·72; houses per square mile, 64. The average number of persons per village is 211; of persons per house, 5·7. Classified according to sex, there are 776,431 males, and 725,493 females; proportion of males, 51·7 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—293,695 males, and 233,126 females; total, 526,821, or 35·1 per cent. of the total population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is given at 368,913, as against 113,823 male adult non-agriculturists. The ethnical division of the people shows 21 Europeans; 4431 aborigines; 505,527 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 181,550 Hindus, subdivided according to caste; 17,180 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 793,215 Muhammadans. There can be no doubt that in Dinájpur, even to a greater extent than in the rest of Bengal, the great bulk of the people are of aboriginal descent; and that the majority became willing converts to the conquering faith of Islám, in preference to remaining out-castes beyond the pale of exclusive Hinduism. The tribes now ranked as aboriginal are very poorly represented. The most numerous is the Dhángar, a generic term for the hillmen who come from Chutiá Nágpur, to work on the roads or to clear jungle; they number 2907, and the cognate Santáls 1039. The semi-Hinduized aborigines, who are nearly three times as numerous as the Hindus proper, mostly consist of

the kindred races of Páli, Rájbansí, and Koch, who are known to be still more largely represented among the general Muhammadan population. These three tribes number collectively 443,927. The few who retain the name of Koch are palanquin-bearers; Rájbansí is the high-sounding title which they have adopted for themselves; whereas Pálí is the appellation applied to them by their neighbours. This last term is almost confined to Dinájpur and the adjoining District of Maldah; it would not be recognised in Kuch Behar State. Among Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 6269; they are traditionally reported to have settled in the District within recent times. The Rájputs number only 1813; the Káyasths, 4523. By far the most numerous caste is the Kaibartta, with 38,051; the fishing castes are also strongly represented, especially the Tior, with 17,364, and the Jáliyá, with 10,296 members. A little immigration into Dinájpur of a temporary character takes place every harvest season; emigration from the District there is none. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 702,235, or 46·8 per cent.; Musalmáns, 793,215, or 52·8 per cent. The remainder is made up of 271 Christians, including 250 native converts settled in three separate communities; 295 Buddhists, all in the Porshá police circle; and 5908 'others.' The Bráhma Samáj has a small body of followers at Dinájpur town, who are mostly engaged in Government service; and at the same place there are a few families of Jain merchants, immigrants from the north-west, with their servants and retainers. The Vaishnavs are returned at 16,710, which number only includes the professed religious mendicants; many of the Pálí tribe are said to belong to this sect. The Gosáins, who are the religious teachers of the Vaishnavs, number 30; the Sanyásís, 187; the Aghorís, 3. The Muhammadans belong almost entirely to the agricultural class; few of them are landholders, and still fewer engage in trade. The reforming sect of Wahábís or Faráizís is known to have exercised some influence among them, but no active fanaticism exists.

The entire population is absolutely rural. The only place returned in the Census Report as containing more than 5000 inhabitants is DINAJPUR TOWN, pop. 13,042. The people display no tendency towards urban life, but rather the reverse. The trading marts consist merely of a line of *golás* or warehouses along the river banks, where agricultural produce can be conveniently stored until the rainy season opens the rivers for navigation. Out of a total of 7108 villages, as many as 6512 contain less than 500 inhabitants each.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District. Of the total food supply, the *áman* or winter crop, grown on low lands and usually transplanted, furnishes from 80 to 96 per cent.; the *áus* or autumn crop, grown on high lands, about 17 per cent.; the *boro* or

spring crop, grown on the borders of marshes and rivers, in certain tracts supplies from 4 to 8 per cent. This last is the only crop in the District which demands irrigation, and the water required is easily obtained from the immediate neighbourhood. Though the area of rice cultivation has widely extended in recent years, it is said that the productive powers of the soil have decreased, owing to over-cropping. Among miscellaneous crops may be mentioned maize and millet, pulses, oil-seeds, tobacco, jute, sugar-cane, *pán* or betel leaf. The staples grown for export are rice, jute, and tobacco. The cultivation of sugar-cane is on the decline. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is applied to *khiár* rice lands, and to the more valuable crops grown on *pali* soil. *Khiár* land is never allowed to lie fallow, but *pali* requires an occasional rest of about one year in every five. The principle of the rotation of crops is not known. There is still a good deal of spare land capable of cultivation, to be found in the south of the District. Horned cattle are very abundant; but owing to the indifference shown in breeding, and to the insufficiency of nourishing pasturage, their condition has miserably deteriorated. The average produce of an acre of good rice land renting at 9s., is about 20 cwts. of rice, valued at £1, 18s.; exceptionally good land will sometimes yield as much as 37 cwts. per acre. *Khiár* land produces only one rice crop in the year; but from *pali* land a second crop of oil-seeds or pulses is obtained in the cold season, in addition to the *áus* rice. This cold-weather crop may be valued at from £1, 10s. to £2, 2s. per acre. The rate of rent paid for *khiár* land varies from 9s. to 12s. an acre; *pali* land rents at from 6s. to £2, 2s. There is little peculiarity in the land tenures of Dinájpur. It is estimated that over about five-eighths of the total area of the District, the superior landlords have parted with their rights in favour of intermediate tenure holders. Only a small fraction of the cultivators have won for themselves rights of occupancy by a continuous holding of more than twelve years; the great majority are mere tenants-at-will.

The following were the current rates of wages in 1870:—Coolies and agricultural day-labourers received 4s. a month with food, or 9s. a month without food; bricklayers and carpenters, from 12s. to 16s. a month; smiths, from £1, to £1, 10s. In the same year, the prices of food grains were as follow:—Common rice, 2s. 9d. per cwt.; common paddy or unhusked rice, 1s. 6d. per cwt.; barley, 7s. 8d. per cwt.; barley flour, 13s. 8d. per cwt. The highest price reached by rice in 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, was 11s. 2d. per cwt.

Dinájpur is exceptionally free from either of the calamities of flood or drought. Owing to the rising of the rivers and the heavy local rainfall, a considerable portion of the District is annually laid under water; but this inundation is productive of good rather than harm. The single occasion on which the general harvest has been known to be

injuriously affected, was in the autumn of 1873, when the protracted drought caused a failure of the *áman* rice crop, upon which the population almost entirely depends for its food supply. It was only the prompt interference of Government that prevented scarcity from intensifying into famine, and £162,188 was expended on relief operations.

For the future, Dinájpur District will be saved from all danger of isolation by the recently opened Northern Bengal State Railway, which runs northwards for about 30 miles through its eastern half. The roads are comparatively few and unimportant. In 1874, in connection with the famine relief operations, a sum of £14,466 was devoted to repairs and the construction of new roads, particular attention being paid to such tracks as will serve for feeders to the railway. The most important means of communication are the rivers, which unfortunately are only navigable by large boats during three or four months in the year.

Manufactures, etc.—The whole population is so entirely agricultural, that scarcely any manufactures exist. Neither indigo nor silk is prepared, and the production of sugar has decreased since the beginning of this century. A little coarse cotton cloth is made for home use; and in some parts a durable fabric called *mekli* is woven from the wild rhea grass. Gunny cloth is manufactured to a considerable extent in the north of the District, this industry being chiefly confined to the women of the Koch tribe.

Until the opening of the railway, Dinájpur was entirely dependent upon its rivers for all its trade. The chief exports are rice, jute, tobacco, sugar, and gunny cloth; the imports are piece-goods, salt and hardware. The western half of the District, so far as the valley of the Purnábhábá, exports its surplus rice towards Behar and the North-Western Provinces by means of the Mahánandá; the eastern half uses the old channels of the Tístá, and sends its produce direct to Calcutta. During the dry season, pack-bullocks and carts traverse the whole country, carrying the surplus rice to the river marts, to be there stored until the streams swell. The principal of these depôts are Ráiganj, Nítpur, Gorághát, Kumárganj, and Churáman. The most important centre of local buying and selling is the NEKMARD fair, which is held annually in honour of a Musalmán saint, and attended by about 100,000 persons. Properly, it is a cattle fair, but traders frequent it with miscellaneous articles collected from the farthest corners of India. Lesser gatherings take place at Alawárkháwá, Dhaldighí, and Sontapur. The registration returns of river traffic are only useful for Dinájpur in so far as they refer to the exports. The imports into the District are chiefly received overland, passing by routes that escape registration. For the year 1876-77, the exports were valued at £480,371, against imports worth only

£81,518. The chief exports are—Rice, 1,186,500 *maunds*, and paddy, 77,600 *maunds*, valued together at £245,160 (placing Dinájpur seventh in the list of rice-exporting Districts in Bengal); jute, 240,500 *maunds*, valued at £72,150; gunny bags, 3,650,100 in number, and gunny cloth, 51,520 pieces, valued together at £93,110; tobacco, 49,000 *maunds*, valued at £24,500. Almost half the value of the registered imports was contributed by salt, 77,200 *maunds*, valued at £38,600; the European piece-goods only amounted to £6190. Of the local marts, Ráiganj stands first, with exports valued at £108,820 (almost entirely jute and gunny bags), and imports valued at £13,503; Nitpur exported £27,430 (almost solely rice), and imported £7640. Of the total quantity of rice, 877,700 *maunds* were consigned direct to Calcutta, 128,000 to Behar, and 180,000 to the North-Western Provinces.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Dinájpur District was £212,340, towards which the land tax contributed £173,454, or 81 per cent.; the net expenditure amounted to £36,839, or little more than one-sixth of the revenue. The large proportion derived from the land revenue is to be explained by the circumstance, that the District was in an exceptionally prosperous condition at the date of the Permanent Settlement. The total land revenue was then fixed at £160,669; and the increase which has since taken place seems the more remarkable, when it is considered that Dinájpur has since lost nearly one-third of its area. In 1870-71, there were 4 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District, and 7 magisterial and 15 civil and revenue courts open. For police purposes, Dinájpur is divided into 17 *thánás* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 388 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £7273. In addition, there was a municipal police of 42 men, and a rural police or village watch of 5297 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 5727 officers and men, giving 1 man to every ·72 of a square mile of area, or to every 262 persons in the population. The estimated total cost was £15,716, averaging £3, 16s. 2d. per square mile and 2½d. per head of population. In 1872, the total number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, amounted to 2490, or 1 person to every 603 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains 1 jail at Dinájpur town. In 1872, the average daily number of prisoners was 387, of whom 6 were women; the labouring convicts averaged 337. These figures show 1 person in jail to every 3880 of the population. The total cost amounted to £1948, or £4, 16s. 3d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures resulted in a cash loss of £90. The death-rate was 36·2 per thousand, against 53·4 for Bengal generally.

Education has widely spread of recent years, owing to the changes by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended, first to

the vernacular middle-class schools, and ultimately to the village schools or *páthsálás.* In 1856, there were only 10 schools in the District, attended by 532 pupils. In 1860, both these numbers had actually decreased; but by 1870, the number of schools had risen to 247 and the pupils to 5723. In 1872, there was a further increase to 456 schools and 8174 pupils, showing 1 school to every 9 square miles and 5 pupils to every 1000 of the population. In the last-mentioned year, the total expenditure on education was £3618, towards which Government contributed £2568, or more than two-thirds. The higher class English school at Dinájpur town was attended by 182 pupils; the normal school by 49.

Up to the close of 1876, the Subdivisional system of administration had not been extended to Dinájpur, but two new Subdivisions were sanctioned at that date. The District is divided into 17 police circles, and into 81 *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions, with an aggregate of 778 revenue-paying estates. In 1876, there were 10 civil judges, and 8 stipendiary magistrates; the maximum distance of any village was 60 miles from a criminal, and 30 miles from a civil court; the average distance was 15 miles. Dinájpur town, with a population of 13,042 souls, is the only municipality in the District. According to the latest returns for 1876-77, the gross municipal income was £983, the average rate of taxation being 1s. 4⅞d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Dinájpur is considerably cooler than that of the Gangetic delta. The hot weather does not set in so early, and the temperature at night continues low until the end of April. During the winter months a heavy dew falls at night, and a thick mist hangs over the ground until dispelled by the morning sun. It has been observed that the hot season proves the least healthy to strangers, while the natives suffer most at the close of the rains. The average annual rainfall is 85·54 inches. The mean annual temperature in 1869 was returned at 83·5°; the maximum being 104·02° in the month of May, the minimum 63° in December.

The principal diseases of the District are remittent and continued fevers, ague, enlargement of the spleen, bowel complaints, cholera, and small-pox. The outbreaks of small-pox are to be referred to the popular practice of inoculation. The vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate during 1875 of 46·02 per thousand in the rural area, and 23·68 in the urban area, which is conterminous with the town of Dinájpur. There was in 1872 only one charitable dispensary in the District, at Dinájpur town, at which 244 in-door and 2396 out-door patients were treated during the year; the expenditure was £237, towards which Government contributed £146. A second dispensary has since been opened at Ráiganj.

Dinájpur.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Dinájpur

District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the Purnábhábá, just below its point of confluence with the Dhápá river, in lat. 25° 38′ N., and long. 88° 40′ 46″ E. Pop. (1872), 13,042, being 7016 Muhammadans, 5847 Hindus, 99 Christians, and 80 'others.' Dinájpur is the only municipality in the District. Revenue (1876-77), £983; rate of taxation, 1s. 4⅞d. per head of population. Municipal police force (1872), 42 men.

Dinánagar.—Municipal town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 7652, being 3253 Hindus, 4011 Muhammadans, 201 Sikhs, and 187 'others.' Situated in lat. 32° 8′ 15″ N., and long. 75° 31′ E., on a low and swampy plain, the source of the river Kirran, whose malarious exhalations render the town unhealthy, and produce endemic fever. Derives its name from Adína Beg, the opponent of the Síkhs in 1752. A dilapidated mud wall surrounds the town; the neighbourhood is profusely irrigated from the Bári Doáb Canal, and dense vegetation comes up to the very gates. Centre of trade in country produce; annual cattle fair during the *Dasahára* festival. Headquarters of a police subdivision (*thání*). Lies on the main road from Amritsar to Pathánkot, 6 miles north-east of Gurdáspur. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £587, or 1s. 9d. per head of population (6626) within municipal limits.

Dinápur (*Dánápur*).—Subdivision of Patná District, Bengal; situated between 25° 32′ and 25° 44′ N. lat., and between 84° 50′ 15″ and 85° 7′ E. long. Area, 132 square miles; villages, 295; houses, 25,452. Total pop. (1872), 141,337, of whom 117,716, or 83·3 per cent., are Hindus; 21,631, or 15·3 per cent., Muhammadans; 1963, or 1·4 per cent., Christians; and 27 of other religions. Proportion of males to total population, 47·9 per cent. Average number of persons per square mile, 1071; villages per square mile, 2·23; persons per village, 479; houses per square mile, 193; inmates per house, 5·6. The Subdivision comprises the police circles (*thánás*) of Dinápur and Máner. One magisterial court in 1870-71; general police force, 216, and village watch, 144 men; cost of Subdivisional administration, £1850, 6s.

Dinápur (*Dánápur*).—Civil and military headquarters of Patná District, Bengal; situated on the right or south bank of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 38′ 19″ N., long. 85° 5′ 8″ E. Divided into two parts, the Cantonments and the Nizámat. Population (1872), 14,170; inclusive of the Nizámat, 42,084. Gross municipal income (1876-77), £2124; rate of taxation, 1s. 1d. per head of population; municipal police force, 7 men. The military force quartered at Dinápur in 1876 consisted of 1 European and 1 Native infantry regiment, and a battery of artillery. The Cantonment magistrate administers the whole Subdivision. The road from Dinápur to Bánkipur, 6 miles in length, is lined throughout with houses and cottages; in fact, Dinápur, Bánkipur, and Patná may be regarded as forming

one continuous narrow city hemmed in between the Ganges and the railway.

History.—The Mutiny of 1857, in Patná District, originated at Dinápur. The three Sepoy regiments stationed here openly revolted in July, and went off *en masse*, taking only their arms and accoutrements with them. Thus lightly equipped, the majority effected their escape into Sháhábád, a friendly country, with nothing to oppose them but the courage of a handful of English civilians, indigo planters and railway engineers. A reinforcement was sent from the European garrison of Dinápur to aid in the defence of ARRAH, which was shortly after besieged by the rebel Sepoys; but the expedition failed disastrously, though individual acts of heroism saved the honour of the British name. Two volunteers, Mr. M'Donell and Mr. Ross Mangles, of the Civil Service, conspicuously distinguished themselves by acts of intrepid valour. The former, though wounded, was one of the last men to enter the boats. The insurgents had taken the oars of his boat and had lashed the rudder, so that although the wind was favourable for retreat, the current carried it back to the river bank. Thirty-five soldiers were in the boat, sheltered from fire by the usual thatch covering; but while the rudder was being fixed, the inmates remained at the mercy of the enemy. At this crisis, Mr. M'Donell stepped out from the shelter, climbed on to the roof of the boat, perched himself on the rudder, and cut the lashings amidst a storm of bullets from the contiguous bank. Strangely enough, not a ball struck him; the rudder was loosened, the boat answered to the helm, and by Mr. M'Donell's brilliant act the crew were saved from certain destruction. Mr. Ross Mangles' conduct was equally heroic. During the retreat, a soldier was struck down near him. He stopped, lifted the man on to his back, and though he had frequently to rest on the way, he managed to carry the wounded man for 6 miles, till he reached the stream. He then swam with his helpless burden to a boat, in which he deposited him in safety. Both these civilians afterwards received the Victoria Cross as a reward for their valour.

Dindigal (*Dindu-kal*).—*Táluk* of Madura District, Madras; number of houses, 61,902; pop. (1871), 324,366. Classified according to religion—Hindus, 294,612, being 212,287 Sivaites and 82,325 Vaishnavs; Muhammadans, 11,778, being 11,720 Sunnis, 49 Shiás, 9 Wahábís; Christians, 17,950, of whom 17,887 are native Roman Catholics. Formerly a separate Province, though subject to Madura, it was ceded by the treaty of 1792 to the Company. It is watered by the Kodavar, Mageri, and other streams, and contains also 3517 tanks, with abundance of fish. A pearl-bearing mussel is said to have been once found here. Among the vegetable products are enumerated 'croton, sarsaparilla, and senna, the last equal to that brought from Egypt.' The ironworks

at Gútum and Kalampetti were once of considerable importance. Chief town, DINDIGAL.

Dindigal (*Dindu-kal*, 'The Rock of Dindu,' an Asura or demon).—Municipal town in the Dindigal *táluk*, Madura District, Madras. Lat. 10° 21′ 39″ N., long. 78° 0′ 17″ E. Number of houses, 2029; pop. (1871), 12,818, viz. Hindus, 11,503; Muhammadans, 1279; and Christians, 36; about 20 per cent. of the whole being weavers, 15 per cent. traders, and the rest principally agriculturists. Formerly the number of Christians was larger, and they lived in a separate quarter, their houses being distinguished by a cross on the roof. Their priest was a native of Malabar, subject ecclesiastically to the Bishop of Cannanore. Situated 880 feet above the sea, on the trunk road from Coimbatore to Pondicherri, about 20 miles from Kodáikanal, the sanitarium on the Paláni Hills, and 30 from Madura. It is connected by railway with the chief towns of the Presidency; the returns for the first three months after the line was opened, in 1875, show a passenger traffic of 44,710, and in goods 2317 tons, realizing £2982. The staples of local trade are hides, tobacco, coffee, and cardamoms, for the export of which the system of roads radiating from the town afford exceptional facilities. The silks and muslins manufactured here had once a high repute, as also the blankets made from 'Carumba' wool. As the headquarters of the Subdivision, Dindigal contains the courts of European as well as native officials, police and telegraph stations, travellers' bungalow, school, dispensary, and post office. There are two churches, a Protestant and a Roman Catholic. The municipal revenue for 1875-76 was £750, and the expenditure £1240, the incidence of taxation being 1s. 1d. per head of the population. Formerly the capital of an independent Province, nominally part of the Madura kingdom. The fort, built on a remarkable wedge-shaped rock 1223 feet above the sea, to the west of the town, remains in good preservation, having been occupied by a British garrison until 1860. As a strategical point of great natural strength, commanding the passes between Madura and Coimbatore, its possession has always been keenly contested. Between 1623 and 1659, it was the scene of many encounters between the Marhattás and the Mysore and Madura troops, the Poligár of Dindigal holding at that time feudatory authority over eighteen neighbouring chieftains. Chánda Sáhib, the Marhattás, and the Mysore troops occupied the fort in turn, and during the intervals in which no greater power was in possession, the strongest local chief made it his headquarters. In 1755, however, Haidar Alí garrisoned Dindigal, and, while still ostensibly the faithful soldier of Mysore, used it as the basis of his schemes for distant conquest and self-aggrandisement, subduing in succession the powerful Poligars of Madura, and annexing the greater part of that District, as well as Coimbatore, to his fief. As the gate to Coimbatore from the south, the fort

proved, in the wars with Haidar, a serious obstacle to the operations of the British troops at Trichinopoli and Madura. It was taken by the British in 1767, lost again in 1768, retaken in 1783, given up to Mysore by the treaty of Mangalore in 1784, recaptured on the next outbreak of war in 1790, and finally ceded to the Company by the treaty of 1792.

Dindivaram (*Tindivanam*). — *Táluk* in South Arcot District, Madras. Area, 810 square miles, of which about four-fifths are cultivated or cultivable, yielding a revenue of £55,155. Number of houses, 29,253. Pop. (1871), 239,784, viz. Hindus, 228,451; Muhammadans, 5145; Christians (native Roman Catholics), 2699; Buddhists and Jains, 3489. Chief places, DINDIVARAM and GINGEE (GINGI).

Dingarh Kiner.—Village in Sirmúr State, Punjab. Lat. 30° 44′ N., long. 77° 21′ E. Stands on a picturesque site, in the gorge traversed by the route from Náhan to Rájgarh. Northwards, it looks towards the Chaur Mountain; southwards, along the valley of the Jalál river. Well-built flat-roofed houses, arranged in rows on the solid limestone ledges of the mountain in its rear. The surrounding country, though rocky, contains some fertile spots, which produce luxuriant crops of wheat.

Dingi.—A fort (with walls 15 feet high) in the Khairpur State, Sind. Lat. 26° 52′ N., long. 68° 40′ E. The rendezvous in 1843 of the forces of the Mírs. Water supply abundant.

Dingier.—Range of mountains in the Khásia and Jáintia Hills District, Assam. The highest peak is 6400 feet above sea level.

Diodar.—State, Pálanpur Agency, Bombay.—*See* DEODAR.

Dipálpur.—*Tahsíl* of Montgomery District, Punjab; consisting for the most part of desert waste, portions of which are being slowly reclaimed under the influence of settled Government. Pop. (1868), 129,838.

Dipálpur.—Ancient and decayed town in Montgomery District, Punjab; headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Pop. (1868), 3628. Situated upon the old bank of the Beas (Biás), 17 miles from the railway station of Okhára and 28 miles north-east of Pákpattan. Dipálpur, now an insignificant village, once formed the capital of the Northern Punjab under the Pathán emperors of Delhi; and even as late as the 16th century, Bábar mentions it as the sister city of Lahore. General Cunningham attributes its foundation to Rájá Deva Pála, whose date is lost in immemorial antiquity. Tradition, however, ascribes the origin of Dipálpur to one Bíja Chánd, a Kshattriya, from whose son it derived its earliest name of Sripur. Old coins of the Indo-Scythian kings have been frequently discovered upon the site; and General Cunningham believes that the mound, on which the village stands, may be identified with the Daidala of Ptolemy.

Firoz Tughlak visited the city in the 14th century, and built a large mosque outside the walls, besides drawing a canal from the Sutlej to irrigate the surrounding lands. At the time of Timur's invasion, Dipálpur ranked second to Múltán (Mooltan) alone, and contained, according to popular calculation, the symmetrical number of 84 towers, 84 mosques, and 84 wells. At the present day, only a single inhabited street runs between the two gates. A high ruined mound on the south-west, connected with the town by a bridge of three arches, probably marks the site of the ancient citadel. The walls apparently completed a circuit of 2½ miles, but suburbs stretched around in every direction, and may still be traced by straggling mounds and fields strewn with bricks. The decay of the town must be attributed to the drying up of the old Beas (Biás), after which event many of the inhabitants migrated to Haidarábád (Hyderabad) in the Deccan. The restoration of the Khánwa Canal, since the British annexation, has partially revived the prosperity of Dipálpur as a local trade centre. *Tahsíli*, police station, *sarái*.

Dipálpur.—Town in Sindhia's territory, Central India; situated in lat. 22° 51′ N., and long. 75° 35′ E., on the route from Mhow (Mau) to Neemuch (Nímach), 27 miles north-west of the former, and 128 south-east of the latter. Pop. in 1820 (*Thornton*), about 4000; number of houses in the same year, 1035.

Dipla.—*Táluk* under the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency, Sind. Lat. 24° 16′ to 24° 57′ 15″ N., and long. 69° 5′ 30″ to 69° 45′ E.; pop. (1872), 14,524. Revenue (1873-74), £2316, of which £2148 were derived from imperial, and £168 from local sources.

Dipla.—Municipal town in the *táluk* of the same name in Sind. Lat. 24° 28′ N., long. 69° 37′ 30″ E.; pop. 893. Municipal revenue (1873-74), £78; incidence of taxation per head, 1s. 9d. Headquarters of a *Múkhtyárkar*. Ruined fort, built about 1790.

Dirápur.—*Tahsíl* of Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces. —*See* DERAPUR.

Dísa (*Deesa*).—Cantonment in Pálanpur State, Bombay; situated on the river Banás, in lat. 24° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 12′ 30″ E., about 301 miles north-west of Mhow (Mau), 251 west by south of Nímach (Neemuch), and 370 north by west of Bombay. Pop. (1872), 5940. The British cantonment is stationed on the left bank of the Banás, 3 miles north-east of the native town. Post and telegraph offices. Dísa is surrounded with a wall and towers, now in very bad repair. In former times it successfully resisted the attacks of the Gáekwár and of the Rádhanpur forces.

Disái.—River in Síbságar District, Assam; rising in the Nágá Hills, and flowing northwards into the Brahmaputra. On its left bank is JORHAT, the most important mart of river traffic in the District.

Disaun.—River of Central India.—*See* DHASAN.

Diu.—An island forming portion of the Portuguese possessions in Western India; situated in lat. 20° 43′ 20″ N., and long. 71° 2′ 30″ E., at the entrance of the Gulf of Cambay, near the southern extremity of the peninsula of Guzerat (Gujarát). Its extreme length from east to west is 6½ miles, and its greatest breadth from north to south, 1 mile. On the north it is separated from the mainland by a narrow channel, practicable only for fishing boats and small craft. It has a small but excellent harbour, where vessels can safely ride at anchor in 2 fathoms of water. The climate is generally dry and sultry, the soil barren, and water scarce. Agriculture is much neglected. The principal products are—wheat, millet, *náchni*, *bájra*, cocoa-nuts, and some kinds of fruits. The entire population of Diu is computed at 10,765 persons, of whom 419 are Christians, 9575 Hindus, and 771 Muhammadans. In the days of its commercial prosperity, the town alone is said to have contained above 50,000 inhabitants. There are 3017 houses, which, with very few exceptions, are poorly constructed. Some of the dwellings are provided with cisterns, of which there are altogether 300, for the accumulation of rain-water. Diu, once so opulent and famous for its commerce, has now dwindled into utter insignificance. Not long ago, it maintained mercantile relations with several parts of India and Mozambique, but at present its trade is almost stagnant. The customs revenue in 1874-75 amounted to £1394, 6s. The principal occupations of the inhabitants were formerly weaving and dyeing, and articles manufactured here were highly prized in foreign markets. At present, fishing affords the chief employment to the impoverished inhabitants. A few more enterprising persons, however, emigrate temporarily to Mozambique, where they occupy themselves in commercial pursuits, and, after making a sufficient fortune, return to their native place to spend the evening of their lives in comfort and repose. The total revenue of Diu in 1873-74 was £3802, and the expenditure, £3749, 14s.

The Governor is the chief authority in both the civil and military departments, subordinate to the Governor-General of Goa. The judicial department is under a *Juiz de Direito*, with a small establishment to carry out his orders. For ecclesiastical purposes, the island is divided into two parishes, called *Se Matriz* and *Brancawara*, the patron saints being St. Paul and St. Andrew. They are both under the spiritual jurisdiction of a dignitary styled the *Prior*, appointed by the Archbishop of Goa. The office of Governor is invariably filled by a European, the others being bestowed on natives of Goa. The public force consisted in 1874 of 97 soldiers, including officers. The present fortress of Diu was reconstructed, with several later improvements, after the siege of 1545, by Dom Joao de Castro. It is an imposing structure,

situated on the extreme east of the island, and defended by several pieces of cannon, some of which are made of bronze, and appear to be in good preservation. It is surrounded by a permanent bridge and entered by a gateway, which bears a Portuguese inscription, and is defended by a bastion called St. George. Towards the west of the fortress lies the town of Diu, divided into two quarters, the pagan and the Christian. The former comprehends two-thirds of the total area, and is intersected by narrow and crooked roads, lined with houses. The remaining portion of the island consists of two principal villages—Musiwara, in the centre, and Brancawara, in the west. Besides these, the Portuguese possess the village of Gogola, towards the north, in the Káthiáwár peninsula, and the fort of Simbor, conquered in 1722, and situated in an islet about 12 miles distant from the town.

Diu was formerly embellished with several magnificent edifices, some of which are still in existence. Of these the most noteworthy is the college of the Jesuits, erected in 1601, and now converted into a cathedral, called *Se Matriz*. Of the former convents, that of St. Francis is used as a military hospital; that of St. John of God, as a place of burial; that of St. Dominic is in ruins. The parochial hall of the once beautiful church of St. Thomas serves as a place of meeting for the municipal chamber. The mint, where, in the days of the greatest prosperity of the Portuguese, money of every species used to be coined, is now gradually falling into decay. The arsenal, once so renowned, contains a few insignificant military stores. Besides these buildings, there are the Governor's palace, a prison, and a school, attended in 1870 by 20 pupils. The Hindus possess 10 small temples, and the Muhammadans 2 mosques, one of which is in good condition.

Owing to the great advantages which the position of Diu afforded for trade with Arabia and the Persian Gulf, the Portuguese were fired from an early period with the desire of becoming masters of this island; but it was not until the time of Nuno da Cunha that they succeeded in obtaining a footing in it. When Bahádur Sháh, King of Guzerat, was attacked by the Mughal Emperor Humáyun, he concluded a defensive alliance with the Portuguese, allowing them to construct, in 1535, a fortress in the island, and garrison it with their own troops. This alliance continued till 1536, when both parties began to suspect each other of treachery. In a scuffle which took place on his return from a Portuguese ship, whither he had proceeded on a visit to Nuno da Cunha, the Guzerat monarch met his death in 1537. In the following year, the fortress was besieged by Muhammad III., nephew of Bahádur; but the garrison, commanded by Antonio de Silveira, foiled the attempts of the enemy, and compelled him to raise the siege. Subsequently, in 1545, Diu was again closely invested by the same ruler; but was obstinately defended by the gallant band within, under the com-

mand of Dom Joao Mascarewas. While the Muhammadans were still under the walls, Dom Joao de Castro landed in the island with large reinforcements, and immediately marching to the relief of the place, totally routed the army of the King of Guzerat in a pitched battle. This heroic defence, and the signal victory gained by Castro, which form a brilliant page in the annals of the Portuguese empire in the East, were followed by the acquisition of the entire island. In 1670, a small armed band of the Arabs of Muscat surprised and plundered the fortress, retiring to their country with the booty they had acquired. Since this event, nothing worthy of note has occurred in connection with the Portuguese settlement.

Diví Point.—A low headland in the Bander *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras; situated in lat. 15° 57′ 30″ N., and long. 81° 14′ E., at the mouth of one of the branch outlets of the Kistna river, and surrounded by shoal flats for 6 miles south and east, the edge of the shoal sometimes extending 5 or 6 leagues out to sea. A dioptric light on a column 43 feet high marks the danger. 'Diví False Point' stands 16½ miles north-west by west of 'Diví Point.'

Diwála. — Village in Chánda District, Central Provinces. — *See* DEWALA.

Diwálgáon.—Village in Chánda District, Central Provinces.—*See* DEWALGAON.

Diwálgáon Rájá.—Town in Buldána District, Berar.—*See* DEULGAON RAJA.

Diwálghát.—*See* DEULGHAT.

Diwáliá.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay.—*See* DEWALIA.

Diwálwára.—Village in Wardha, Central Provinces.—*See* DEWALWARA.

Diwálwára.—Ruined town in Ellichpur District, Berar. — *See* DEWALWARA.

Diwángirí.—Village in the north of Kamrúp District, Assam; situated in lat. 26° 51′ N., and long. 91° 27′ E., close beneath the Bhután Hills. It is the site of a large annual fair, to which the Bhutiás come down in large numbers, bringing gold-dust, silver, lead, knives, blankets, ponies, yáks' tails, etc., to exchange for rice, dried fish, silk, madder, etc.

Diwás.—Native State in Central India.—*See* DEWAS.

Doáb (*Duáb*, or two rivers).—A tract of country in the North Western Provinces, comprising the long and narrow strip of land between the Ganges and the Jumna, from the Siwálik range south-eastward. The name properly applies to any wedge-shaped tract enclosed by confluent rivers, but it is especially employed to designate this great alluvial plain, the granary of Upper India. The Doáb includes the British Districts of SAHARANPUR, MUZAFFARNAGAR, MEERUT, BULAND-

SHAHR, ALIGARH, parts of MUTTRA, and AGRA, ETAH, MAINPURI, the greater portion of ETAWAH, and FARRUKHABAD, CAWNPORE, FATEHPUR, and part of ALLAHABAD,—all of which see separately. Naturally a rich tract, composed of the detritus brought down from the Himálayan system by its great boundary rivers, the Doáb has been fertilized and irrigated by three magnificent engineering works, the Ganges, the lower Ganges, and the Eastern Jumna Canals. Throughout its entire length it presents an almost unbroken sheet of cultivation, varied only by a few ravines along the banks of the principal streams and their tributaries, or by occasional patches of barren *usar* plain, covered with the white saline efflorescence known as *reh.* It supports a dense population, most of whom derive their subsistence from agriculture. ALLAHABAD, CAWNPORE, MEERUT, and ALIGARH form the chief commercial centres, and the principal stations of the civil and military authorities. The East Indian Railway enters the Doáb at Allahábád, and passes through the heart of the tract, by Cawnpore, Etáwah, and Alígarh, to Delhi on the opposite shore of the Jumna. A branch line also runs across the river to Agra. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway continues the East Indian line from Gházíábád Junction, nearly opposite Delhi, by Meerut, Muzaffarnagar, and Sahäranpur, to Umballa (Ambála) and the other Punjab towns. The Doáb thus possesses unrivalled means of communication, both by land and water, with all the neighbouring tracts; and its surplus grain can be transported in almost every direction, upon any pressure of scarcity or famine. Three principal divisions are commonly recognised; the Upper Doáb, from Sahäranpur to Alígarh; the Middle Doáb, from Muttra and Etah to Etáwah and Farrukhábád; and the Lower Doáb, from Cawnpore to the junction of the two rivers at Allahábád. For history, inhabitants, and other particulars, see the various Districts separately.

Doába Dáúdzái.—*Tahsíl* of Pesháwar District, Punjab, including the tongue of land between the rivers Swát and Kábul, above their junction, together with the strip of territory to the south of the Kábul. Area, 156 square miles; pop. (1868), 72,676; number of villages, 174. Consists for the most part of a fertile and well-watered plain, intersected by ravines and artificial channels.

Dobbili.—*Zamíndárí*, Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* BOBBILI.

Dodábetta ('*The Big Mountain;*' *Toda-Nanc*—Petmartz).—The highest peak of the Nílgiri Mountains, Madras. Lat. 11° 25′ N., long. 76° 40′ E.; height, 8760 feet above the sea.

Dod-ballapur.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore. Area, 292 square miles; pop. (1871), 63,707; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £9655, or 2s. 10d. per cultivated acre.

Dod-ballapur (*Great Ballapur*, to distinguish it from CHIK-BALLAPUR).—Municipal town in Bangalore District, Mysore, on the right bank

of the Arkavatí river; lat. 13° 13′ 40″ N., long. 77° 22′ 50″ E.; 27 miles by road north-west of Bangalore; pop. (1871), 7449, being 6610 Hindus and 839 Muhammadans; municipal revenue (1874-75), £62; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. The fort was built in the 14th century by one of the refugees of the Morasu Wokkal tribe, who also founded Devanhalli. In 1638, it was captured by a Bijápur army under Ran-dullá Khán; and after forty years' possession by that power, was surrendered to the Marhattás. About 1700, it was again taken by the Mughals, by whom it was entrusted to a succession of rulers as part of the Province of Sira, until annexed to Mysore by Haidar Ali in 1761. In the fort are the remains of several fine buildings and tanks. Cotton cloth of good quality and great variety is woven. A weekly fair, held on Thursdays, is attended by 3000 people. Headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Dodderi.—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Lat. 14° 17′ 50″ N., long. 76° 45′ 5″ E.; pop. (1871), 1003. Gives its name to a *táluk* with headquarters at Chalakere; area, 851 square miles; pop. (1871), 77,231; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £10,369, or 2s. 11d. per cultivated acre. Among the local manufactures are cotton cloth, silk scarves, *kamblis* or country blankets, carts, agricultural implements, brass utensils, and various articles of bamboo and leather. The industry of papermaking has died out.

Dodka.—One of the petty States in Rewá Kánta, Bombay, ruled by three chiefs called Pátels. Area, 2¾ square miles; estimated revenue, £220, of which £110 is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Dohad.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in the District of the Pánch Mahál̄s, Bombay. Lat. 22° 53′ N., and long. 74° 19′ E.; 77 miles north-east of Baroda; pop. (1872), 11,472. As the name Dohad (or 'two boundaries') implies, the town is situated on the line separating Málwá on the east from Guzerat (Gujarát) on the west. It is a place of considerable traffic, commanding one of the main lines of communication between Central India and the seaboard. The strongly-built fort dates from the reign of the Guzerat King Ahmad I. (1412-1443). It was repaired by Muzaffar II. (1513-1526), also a Guzerat monarch, and is said to have been again restored under the orders of the Emperor Aurangzeb (1658-1707). The town contains a sub-judge's court, post office, and the District jail. In addition to the unarmed police, the Guzerat Bhíl corps, 530 strong, is quartered at Dohad. This regiment is not on the rolls of the army, but is commanded by the superintendent and assistant superintendent of police. About half the strength of the corps is employed on outpost duty.

Doharighat.—Town in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces; lies in lat. 26° 16′ N., and long. 83° 33′ 30″ E., on the bank of the Gogra, at the point where the roads from Gházípur and Azamgarh to

Gorakhpur cross the river. Extensive through traffic to the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Great bathing festival on the full moon of the month of Kártik.

Dolphin's Nose.—Promontory and lighthouse in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 41′ N., long. 83° 17′ E. The southern point of Vizagapatam harbour, 640 feet above the sea, and forming, with the ruined castle on it, a conspicuous landmark to mariners. The light (fixed) is visible 5 miles to seaward.

Domáriaganj. — North-western *tahsíl* of Basti District, North-Western Provinces. Traversed by the river Rápti, and consisting chiefly of a marshy and water-logged submontane plain, suitable only for the cultivation of rice. Area, 582 square miles, of which 410 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 259,047; land revenue, £26,650; total Government revenue, £29,373; rental paid by cultivators, £65,960; incidence of Government revenue, 1s. 5⅜d. per acre.

Domel.—An island in the Mergui Archipelago, between lat. 11° 26′ and 11° 28′ N., and long. 98° 2′ and 98° 11′ E., forming a portion of Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It lies 3 or 4 miles west of Kissering, the navigable channel between them, however, being very narrow. Extreme length from north to south, about 28 miles; breadth from east to west, about 4 miles.

Domeli.—Agricultural town in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab. Lat. 33° 1′ N., long. 73° 24′ E.; pop. (1868), 4135. Headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*).

Donabyú.—A township in Thonkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It lies principally on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), and was formerly a part of Henzada District; it is now protected from inundation by extensive embankments along the west bank of the river. Pop. (1876), 36,122; gross revenue, £10,856.

Donabyú.—A town on the right bank of the Irawadi, 35 miles south of Henzada, in Thonkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. 17° 15′ N., long. 95° 40′ E. The inhabitants in 1876 numbered 5800; revenue (1875-76), £425. In the first Anglo-Burmese war, after the capture of Rangoon, the Burmese commander-in-chief, Bandúla, entrenched himself in Donabyú with a force of 15,000 men; but he was killed by the bursting of a shell when the British batteries opened fire on the town, and the Burmese retreated. During the second war, the Burmese general evacuated the place before the arrival of the English; but shortly after this, Moung Myat Htún made it his headquarters. He was finally routed in 1853, by a detachment under Captain Loch, R.N., and later on was overtaken by Sir John Cheape and killed. From this time Donabyú remained in undisputed possession of the British.

Donabyú Myoma.—A revenue circle on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), in Thonkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The

southern part was formerly subject to inundation, but is now protected by embankments. Pop. (1876), 7328; gross revenue, £1513.

Dongargarh.—A small village in the south-east of the Kháiragarh Chiefship, attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 11′ 30″ N., long. 80° 50′ E. Formerly an important town, and still the seat of a large weekly market. The remains of the fort, which must have been a place of great strength, stretch along the north-east base of a detached rocky hill, about 4 miles in circuit, near the village. The spurs of the hill, which is very steep and covered with large boulders, were connected by walls of rude and massive masonry, inside which tanks were dug, while a deep fosse ran beyond the walls. On its other faces the hill is almost inaccessible, and no works can be traced. Nor have any remains of buildings been found, although the fort could only be held by a large garrison.

Dongarpur.—Native State in]ájputána.—*See* DUNGARPUR.

Dongartál.—Village in Seoni District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 36′ N., long. 79° 24′ E. Situated on the old road between Seoni and Nágpur. Celebrated for its breed of cattle. Fine tank and ruins of an old fort.

Dorandá.—Military cantonment in Lohárdagá District, Bengal; situated to the south of Ránchí, the civil station of the District. Lat. 23° 21′ 31″ N., long. 85° 22′ 5″ E. It has a parade ground and a rifle-range, with a small *bázár*. Military force quartered here (1874), the 33d Regiment of Madras Native Infantry. A rural municipality under Act xx. of 1856. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £30. Population not separately returned by the Census of 1872.

Dornal Ghát.—A pass over the Eastern Gháts, Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 41′ N., long. 79° 14′ E. The main road to Cuddapah from Nellore (41 miles distant east by north) and the coast passes through it.

Double Island.—A small island about 12 miles south of Amherst Point, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It is raised high above the sea, and lies in lat. 15° 52′ 30″ N., and long. 97° 36′ 30″ E. On it stands a lighthouse containing a dioptric fixed light of the first order, with a catadioptric mirror visible 19 miles, and first exhibited in December 1865. Its object is to guide ships making for Maulmain, and to prevent their running up the Tsittoung river to certain destruction.

Doulatábád.—Town, Salem District, Madras.—*See* KRISHNAGIRI.

Doungbún.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated to the north-east of Lake Eng-ma in a highly cultivated rice country. Pop. (1876), 9296; gross revenue, £2078.

Doung-gyí.—Town in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the Bassein river, in lat. 17° 22′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 8′ E., surrounded by an open waste country, which is covered with grass

and tree forest, and liable to inundation. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in fishing and in the manufacture of clay pots for salt-boiling.

Doung-mana.—Revenue circle in Martaban township, Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 544; gross revenue, £157.

Dowlaishvaram (*Dowlaishwar; Davaleshwaram*, or 'White Siva').—Town in the Rájahmundry *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 56′ 35″ N., long. 81° 48′ 55″ E.; houses, 1376; pop. (1872), 7252. Situated 5 miles south of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry), at the bifurcation of the Godávari river, where the great anicut has been constructed. During its construction, Dowlaishvaram, as the headquarters of the sappers and miners and a large engineering staff, was a place of much importance. At present it is the permanent station of the District engineering staff; the Government workshop established here turns out work for the Public Works Department valued officially at £17,000 per annum. The houses of the former European residents, built on the hills in the neighbourhood, are now in ruins. Quarries of good building stone are here worked to the extent of 10,000 cubic yards annually, and the demand appears to be increasing year by year. During the wars between the Sithapatis of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) and the Muhammadan rulers of Ellore, in the 15th and 16th centuries, Dowlaishvaram was the usual crossing point of the contending armies, and the scene, therefore, of frequent struggles. At present the town is connected with the coast at several points by numerous navigable canals of the Godávari irrigation system.—*See* GODAVARI RIVER.

Dowlatábád.—Town in the Nizám's Dominions.—*See* DAULATABAD.

Drafa.—One of the petty States of Hallár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 24 villages, with 9 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £6000; tribute is paid of £370 to the British Government, and £116 to the State of Junágarh.

Dravida.—A Division of the Peninsula, ethnological and philological rather than geographical, comprising all India south of the Vindhyá range and the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, except Orissa and those parts of Western India and the Deccan where Guzerathí and Marathí are spoken. As early as 404, Dravida is spoken of (in the *Brihat Samhita* of Varaha Mihira) as being divided into Chola, Pandya, Kerála, Karnataka, Kalinga, and Andhra. Manu mentions the inhabitants, 'the Dravidas,' as outcasts and barbarians, *i.e.* not in communion with Bráhmans. Modern authorities assign 12 dialects to the Division, the four chief being *Támil*, spoken in Pandya, Chola, and Eastern Kerála, *i.e.* throughout the central and southern Districts of Madras; *Telugu*, the language of the Kalinga and Andhra countries, or 'Telingana,' corresponding to the 'Northern Circars,' spoken by a population of 14½ millions;

Malayalam, spoken in Western Kerála, *i.e.* Malabar, Travancore, and Cochin, the language of about 4 millions; and *Kanarese*, in 'Karnatika,' or Kanara, Mysore, and a few tracts of the Wynád and Coimbatore, comprising about 9 million inhabitants. *Tulu* is spoken round Mangalore by some 300,000 persons, and in Coorg, in the Province of that name, by some 150,000. The other six 'uncultivated' dialects belong to some 2¼ millions of people, so that the entire Division of 'Dravida' may be taken to include nearly 46 millions of inhabitants. The identification of the words *Dravida* and *Támil* (or Tamul) has been ingeniously proposed by a modern scholar, as also the identity of both with the Dimyrice of the Peutingerian tables and the Limyrice of Ptolemy. The great authority on the languages of Southern India is Bishop Caldwell's *Comparative Grammar*. As Dravida is a linguistic and not an administrative division, the above inadequate notice must suffice here.

Drúg.—*Tahsíl* or Revenue Subdivision in Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 45′ 30″ to 21° 33′ N., and long. 80° 54′ to 80° 41′ E.; pop. (1872), 295,153, residing in 980 villages or townships, and 64,625 houses; area, 2198 square miles.

Drúg.—Town in Ráipur District, Central Provinces, lying in lat. 21° 11′ N., and long. 81° 21′ E., on the Great Eastern Road, 24 miles west of Ráipur. Pop. (1870), about 2200. Headquarters of *tahsíl* of same name. The Marhattás made Drúg their base of operations in 1740-41, when they overran Chhatisgarh. Besides occupying the ancient fort, which is now dismantled, they formed an entrenched camp on the high ground on which the town stands, commanding a clear view of the surrounding country. Drúg manufactures excellent cotton cloth, and has a *tahsílí*, police station, girls' school, town school, post office, travellers' rest-house, and dispensary.

Duáb.—A long narrow wedge-shaped tract of country enclosed by two confluent rivers. The name is specially applied to designate the great alluvial plain between the Ganges and the Jumna.—*See* DOAB.

Dúb.—Pass in Kashmír State, Punjab, on the route from Attock to Kashmír by the Báramula road. Lat. 34° 17′ N., long. 73° 21′ E. Held by freebooters during the Sikh period, whom Hari Sinh attacked and exterminated. Lies on the watershed dividing the feeders of the Kishanganga and the Jhelum on the east, from those of the Indus on the west.

Dubári.—Agricultural town in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 11′ 26″ N., long. 83° 49′ 5″ E.; area, 138 acres; pop. (1872), 5014.

Dubláná.—Town in Bundi (Boondee) State, Rájputána. Lat. 25° 35′ N., long. 75° 41′ E.; 272 miles south-west of Mhow (Mau), and 235 north of Delhi. Scene of a battle fought in 1744 between the forces of the exiled Rájá of Bundi and of Jáipur (Jeypore), in which the former were defeated.

Dubrájpur.—Town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 47′ 35″ N., long. 87° 25′ E. A fine town, containing an *akbári* or excise officer's bungalow, a *munsíf's kachári* or subordinate judge's court, and a police station; also a good market for English piece-goods, cloth, brass pots, sugar, lac, rice, and sweetmeats. Dubrájpur is surrounded by tanks, the banks of which are generally planted with fan-leaved palms, yielding a powerful spirit from their juice, which brings in a considerable revenue to Government. The supply of fish in the tanks is inexhaustible. In the south of the town, huge picturesque rocks of granite and gneiss (composed of glassy quartz, pink and grey felspar, and black mica) crop up through the soil, covering an area of about one square mile. In the centre is a vast block of granite united to a mass of gneiss, which adheres to it at an angle of 45°. A good view of the surrounding country, with the Parasnáth Mountain, Rájmahál and Pánchet Hills, in the distance, can be obtained from the summit of this rock, which is about 60 feet high. A flat-roofed temple has been built on one of these granite rocks, and the whole block is worshipped by the Bráhmans as Mahádeo.

Dúdhpur.—One of the petty States in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. The State contains an area of ⅜ths of a square mile. The chief is Rahtor Umedbáwa. The revenue is estimated at £30, and tribute of £3 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Dúdhráj. — One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 2 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £1834; a tribute of £110 is paid to the British Government and £9 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Duduyá.—One of the chief rivers of Jalpáigurí District, Bengal; formed mainly by the junction of the Gayerkatá and Nanái, which streams, after uniting, flow in a south-easterly direction through the Western Dwárs of Jalpáigurí, passing into Kuch Behar territory at a village called Dakálikobá Hát. Its principal tributaries are the Gulandi, the Kaluá or Rehtí, Barabank, Demdema, and Tásátí, all of which rise in the Bhután Hills.

Dugriá.—One of the petty States in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. On the settlement of Malwa, Rájá Khán, brother of the notorious Pindárí chief Chítu, was allowed an assignment of land in Shujáwalpur for his lifetime. But in 1825 he was assured that, in consideration of his past good conduct, the circumstances of his family would receive favourable consideration after his death. In accordance with this promise, at his death the estate was divided among his five sons. The third son received Dugriá, and his descendant Karím Baksh is now chief.

Dujána.—One of the Native States, under the Government of the Punjab; situated between 28° 39′ 15″ and 28° 42′ 15″ N. lat., and

between 76° 37′ and 76° 43′ E. long. Muhammad Sádat Alí Khán, the Nawáb of Dujána, comes of an Afghán stock. The estates of the family were originally granted to Abdul Samand Khán and his sons for life by Lord Lake, as a reward for service rendered. In 1806, the tenure was made perpetual by a *sanad* of the Governor-General, and several estates in Hariána District were added, which were afterwards exchanged for the villages of Dujána and Mehana in Rohtak. Dujána is about 37 miles west of Delhi. The chief holds his tenure on conditions which may be briefly described as fidelity to the British Government and military service when required. The force to be furnished on application is 200 horse. The territories of the Nawáb are not more than 100 square miles in extent. The principal products are opium and grain. There is a force of cavalry and infantry, including police, amounting to 130 men. The population in 1875 was estimated at 27,000, and the supposed gross revenue at £6500 per annum.

Dulhí.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; 2 miles north-east of the Chauka river. Pop. (1869), 2400 Hindus and 205 Muhammadans—total, 2605. Formerly the residence of a large landholder, who was transported, and his estates confiscated, for disloyal conduct during the Mutiny.

Dumagudiem (*Dooma*).—Town in the Badráchalam *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 17° 48′ N., long. 80° 55′ E.; pop. (1871), 1400, chiefly Kois. Situated on the Godávari river, 15 miles above Badráchalam and 101 north of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). Until recently the headquarters of the Upper Godávari engineering works, and still the station of an executive engineer, with police establishment and post office. With the rest of the *táluk*, the town formed part of the Nizám's territory until 1860, when it was incorporated with the Central Provinces. In 1874, it was transferred to Madras. The 'first barrier' on the Godávari is at Dumagudiem.—*See* GODAVARI RIVER.

Dum-Dum.—Subdivision of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated between 22° 34′ and 22° 41′ N. lat., and between 88° 26′ and 88° 31′ E. long. It consists of the single police circle (*tháná*) of Dum-Dum. Area, 24 square miles; villages, 41; houses, 6855. Pop. (1872), 34,291—of whom 19,127, or 55·8 per cent., were Hindus; 13,726, or 40 per cent., Muhammadans; 1421, or 4·1 per cent., Christians; and 17 of other religions. Proportion of males to total population, 53·8 per cent.; average number of persons per square mile, 1444; villages per square mile, 1·72; persons per village, 836; houses per square mile, 289; inmates per house, 5·6. One magisterial court in 1870-71; general police force, 104 men; village police, 47 men; cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £1577, 12s.

Dum-Dum (*Dam-Damá*).—Municipal town and cantonment in Dum-Dum Subdivision, Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal. Lat.

22° 37′ 52″ N., long. 88° 27′ 51″ E.; 4½ miles north-east of Calcutta. Pop. (1872), 5179; municipal revenue (1876-77), £127, or 5⅝d. per head, including the troops. The strength of the force stationed here in 1873 was as follows:—Headquarters of 62d Foot, consisting of 12 officers and 626 non-commissioned officers and men; and a detachment of the 27th Native Infantry, consisting of 2 native officers and 108 non-commissioned officers and men; total of all ranks, 110; grand total, 784. The barracks are built of brick and very commodious, with a *bázár* some distance from the lines. Dum-Dum is a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway; contains an English school. In Major Smyth's Report, referring to a period anterior to 1857, it is stated that Dum-Dum was the headquarters of the artillery from 1783 until their removal to Meerut, a more central station, in 1853. At that date the town possessed a magazine and percussion cap manufactory; barracks; European and native hospital; a large *bázár;* several clear-water tanks; and a Protestant church, containing monuments erected to the memory of Colonel Pearse, the first commandant of the artillery regiment, and of Captain Nicholl and the officers and men of the 1st troop, 1st brigade, Horse Artillery, who perished during the retreat from Kábul in 1841. The treaty by which the Nawáb of Bengal ratified the privileges of the British, and restored the settlements at Calcutta, Kásimbázár, and Dacca, was signed at Dum-Dum, February 6, 1757.

Dum-Dum.—Valley and pass in Kashmír State, Punjab; situated in lat. 33° 45′ N., and long. 75° E., between the Fateh Panjal and Pír Panjal Mountains, at an elevation of 11,800 feet above sea level. Through it lies the route from the Punjab to Kashmír by Rájáwar. The Rembeara river rises on its summit, and, flowing north-east, falls into the Jhelum (Jhílam).

Dumká.—Subdivision and town in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal.—*See* NAYA DUMKA.

Dumrá Falls.—A succession of rapids in Hill Tipperah, Bengal; situated just below the point where the Cháimá and Ráimá unite to form the Gumti. These rapids continue for a distance which is reckoned a day's journey by water, and end in a grand picturesque cascade, which leaps into a pool whence the stream issues through a narrow gorge.

Dumráon.—Municipal town in Sháhábád District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 17,356. Lat. 25° 32′ 59″ N., long. 84° 11′ 42″ E. Station on the East Indian Railway. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £557; rate of taxation per head, 4⅞d.

Dumráon.—Branch of the Arrah Canal in Sháhábád District, Bengal; with its 12 distributaries forming a portion of the Són system. It is 40½ miles long, and leaves the main canal at the 17th mile.

Dumurdah.—Town in Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the Húglí river just above Nayá Sarái, in lat. 23° 2′ 15″ N., and long. 88° 28′ 50″ E. Notorious for its gangs of river *dákáits*, and as the home of the ill-famed robber chief Biswanáth Bábu, who was at last betrayed by one of his comrades and hanged on the scene of his capture. Even as recently as 1845, it was said that 'people fear to pass by this place after sunset, and no boats are ever moored at its *ghát* even in broad daylight.' The population of Dumurdah is not separately returned in the Census of 1872.

Dún.—A range of hills in the north-west of Champáran District, Bengal; extending in a slightly south-easterly direction from the Rohuá *nadí* to the Achuí *nadí*, a distance of about 20 miles, the average breadth being 4 miles. It has been suggested by some that this range is adapted for tea cultivation; others consider the climate too dry. The Dún valley is inhabited by the aboriginal tribe of Thárus.

Dunal Ghát. — Pass over the Eastern Gháts, Nellore District, Madras.—*See* DORNAL GHAT.

Dundwáraganj. — Small trading town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 43′ 50″ N., long. 78° 59′ 34″ E.; area, 65 acres; pop. (1872), 5414, being 2778 Hindus and 2636 Muhammadans. Situated on the Saháwar and Patiálí road, 22 miles north-east of Etah. Consists of two separate villages, Dundwáráganj and Dundwára Khás, sufficiently close to one another for inclusion under a common title. Derives its name from a colony of Dundiya Káyasths, established on the spot by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori in 1194 A.D. *Bázár*, market-place, *sarái*, school. The central roadway generally presents a busy scene, and the town, though small, contains many comparatively wealthy residents.

Dungagalí (*Dungá Gálí*).—Small sanitarium in Hazára District, Punjab; composed of a few houses, or rather huts, scattered over the southern slopes of the Mochpura Hill, belonging to Europeans, who visit it from Abbottábád and Murree. Staging bungalow and branch post office.

Dúngarpur.—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of that Agency and the Government of India. It extends from lat. 23° 31′ to 24° 3′ N., and from long. 73° 37′ to 74° 16′ E. Its length from east to west is 40 miles, and breadth from north to south 35 miles; total area, 952 square miles. Bounded on the north by Udáipur (Oodeypore); on the east by Udáipur and the river Máhi, which separates it from the State of Bánswára; on the south by the Máhi; and on the west by the Máhi Kánta Agency in Guzerat (Gujarát). The country consists for the most part of stony hills covered with low jungle of cactus, jujube trees, and a gum-producing tree called *salar* by the natives, together with several other varieties of shrubs and trees requir-

ing neither a deep soil nor moisture. In the north and east of the State the landscape is wild and rugged, but towards the south-west border the harsher features are much softened, and for several miles the country resembles Guzerat in character and appearance. There are two or three large forest tracts, producing blackwood, ebony, and other valuable timber-trees. Of pasture land, properly so called, there is scarcely any; and during the hot season the numerous cattle kept by the Bhíls are reduced to a miserable state of leanness. The cultivated area is almost entirely confined to the valleys and low ground between the hills, where the soil is of a rich alluvial nature, and can be irrigated from numerous wells and tanks. On the hillsides, the only cultivation attempted is by burning down occasional patches of forest, and scattering seed in the ashes. Though the country is broken and hilly, none of the hills attain a great height. The geological structure of Dúngarpur is of trap; the rocks belong to the granitic, primitive, or metamorphic order of formation, their chief constituents being gneiss, hornblende, argillaceous schist or clay slate, mica, calcareous sandstone, quartz, etc. A good durable stone of the granitic class, fit for building purposes, is quarried from a hill about 6 miles south of the capital. A soft greenish greystone (serpentine) is found near the village of Matugamra, about 6 miles east of the capital. This is carved extensively at Dúngarpur town and elsewhere, into idols, drinking cups, and effigies of men and animals. Another species of hard stone (basaltic), of which grindstones and similar articles are manufactured, is mined near the town of Sagwára. Lime is found in tolerable abundance, but not of very pure quality. No attempt ever appears to have been made to work an iron mine in this Province, although the presence of this ore in the form of iron pyrites is manifest.

The only rivers are the Máhi and Som, which meet near the sacred temple of Baneshwar, where a large fair is held every year. The Máhi divides the State from Bánswára, and the Som from the estate of Salumbar in Udáipur (Oodeypore). Both these streams are perennial, although in several places the water of the Som runs in a subterranean channel, suddenly disappearing and emerging again, apparently but little affected by its temporary subsidence. The bed of the Máhi is on an average about 300 or 400 feet in breadth, and is, on the whole, very stony. Its banks are in many parts steep, but never very high, and are thickly lined in many places with Vitex trifolia (chaste tree), called by the natives *bena*, which affords cover in the hot weather to tigers and other wild beasts.

The natural productions of the State are—wheat, barley, gram, millet, Indian corn, rice, and a few inferior sorts of grain; also cotton, opium, oil-seeds, ginger, chillies, turmeric, and sugar-cane. Vegetables (onions, yams, sweet potatoes, egg plants, and radishes) are grown in

considerable quantities. Fruit is not abundant, little else being seen but melons, limes, mangoes, and plantains. *Mahuá* trees are very numerous, and from their fruit a strong fermented liquor is distilled. The total population is estimated in the *Gazetteer of Dúngarpur* (1878) at 175,000 souls. Three-fourths of the inhabitants are Hindus, one-eighth Jains, and one-eighth Musalmáns. The Bhíls aggregate about 10,000 souls. There are said to be sixteen first-class nobles and thirty-two of inferior rank, who compose the aristocracy of the State. All these Thákurs are Rájputs, who hold their land nominally by grant from the ruling chief, but really by right of kinship or alliance with his family; their united estates comprise lands in which are situated 170 villages. The principal traders are the Hindu Maháјans and the Bohras. A number of Patháns and Mekránis reside in Dúngarpur territory, most of whom are employed as soldiers or armed attendants. The language spoken is a mixture of Guzerathi and Hindustání, locally called Bágar.

Some years ago, carefully prepared statistics showed that the total land revenue of Dúngarpur amounted to about £18,335, of which £7968 went to the State, £9196 to the Thákurs, and the balance to the religious orders. The State pays tribute to the British Government of Salim Shahi Rs. 3500. No schools have been established in Dúngarpur, nor is there any system of education. All civil and criminal cases of any importance are settled by a court presided over by the *díwán* or minister, from which, however, an appeal lies to the Mahárával. There are six police centres, at each of which is stationed an official called a *thánádár*. The *thánádárs* are of two classes; the first can sentence offenders to one month's imprisonment, or impose a fine of 50s. The second can impose a fine of £1, or eight days' imprisonment. There is a jail at the capital.

There are no made roads in the State. The principal towns are the capital DUNGARPUR, Galliákot, and Sagwára. Two fairs are held during the year, one at Baneshwar in February or March, the other at Galliákot about the end of the latter month, each lasting about fifteen days. Baneshwar is also a place of Hindu pilgrimage.

Mahárával Udái Sinh is the present chief of Dúngarpur. He belongs to the Sesodiá clan of Rájputs, and claims descent from an elder branch of the family which now rules at Udáipur (Oodeypore). The early history of the family is not known with certainty; but when the Mughal Empire had been fairly consolidated, the Dúngarpur chief appears to have opened communication with the court. His successors paid tribute and did military service. Upon the fall of the Empire, Dúngarpur became tributary to the Marhattás, from whose yoke the prince and his people were rescued by the British, and a treaty was concluded in 1818. As in other States inhabited by wild hill tribes, it became

necessary at an early period of the British supremacy to employ a military force to coerce the Bhíls, who had been excited to rebellion by some of the disaffected nobles. The Bhíl chiefs, however, submitted to terms before actual hostilities commenced. The Maháráwal Jaswant Sinh was found incompetent as a ruler, and deposed by the British Government in 1825. His adopted son, Dalpat Sinh, second son of the chief of Partábgarh, was made regent, and succeeded him. But on his accession to the State of Partábgarh, he was permitted to adopt the present ruler, Udái Sinh, then a minor, as his successor in Dúngarpur. The military force consists of 4 guns, about 400 cavalry, and 1000 infantry. The chief is entitled to a salute of 15 guns.

Dúngarpur.—Town and residence of the Maháráwal of the State of the same name in Rájputána; lies in lat. 23° 52′ N., long. 73° 49′ E., on the route from Nímach (Neemuch) to Dísa (Deesa), 139 miles south-west of the former and 121 miles south-east of the latter. The town is overlooked by a hill about 700 feet high, and 5 miles in circumference at base, which, with the Maháráwal's palace on its summit, and a lake at its foot, forms a striking picture.

Duni.—Town in Jáipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána. Lat. 25° 52′ N., long. 75° 38′ E.; 70 miles south of Jáipur.

Dúnran.—A tidal creek in Thonkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Its total length is 13 miles, and it runs from the To or China Bakir in a southerly direction to the sea. The depth of water varies from ½ fathom to 8 or 9 fathoms, the northern end being shallow, and the southern deep; the water is sweet, except at spring tides when a high bore is formed. The Dúnran, on account of numerous shoals, is only navigable by small boats. On its right bank, in the interior, stretch extensive plains abounding in game; and on the left, wild elephants are found.

Dúnreng.—A peak in the Zwai-ka-beng Hills, north of Maulmain, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It is difficult of ascent, owing to the precipitous nature of the limestone rocks. At the summit is a large basin, which appears to be the crater of an extinct volcano; this is surrounded for miles by dark precipitous crags of every form. Down a steep descent of one or two hundred feet, an uneven plain covered with a luxuriant forest is seen. This impregnable natural fortress has been the refuge of the Karengs for many generations. Its great drawback is the deficient water supply. It is said that a large number of Karengs besieged here by the Siamese, perished for want of food and water. Dúnreng means 'City of weeping,' and derives its name from this tradition.

Dúnreng.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated on the western slopes of the Zwai-ka-beng Hills. Pop. (1876), 1881, chiefly Karengs; land revenue, £236, and capitation tax, £256.

Dúnthamie.—River in the Tenasserim Division, British Burma, which has never been thoroughly explored. It rises somewhat below the latitude of Shwe-gyeng, between the Bhíleng and Salwín rivers, and, after a very tortuous course southwards, unites with the Kyouk-tsarit in about lat. 16° 59′ 30″ N., to form the Bhenglaing, a tributary of the Salwín. Navigable by native boats. In the upper part of its course it flows through a hilly teak-covered country, and its tributary streams facilitate the transport of the timber in the rains.

Dúnwon.—A village in Tha-htún township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated on the left bank of the Bhíleng river now embanked. Pop. (1876), 281. In former times Dúnwon was an important walled city, and the chief town of the surrounding country. In 1306 and 1351, when it formed a portion of Martaban, it was captured by the King of Zeng-mai, east of the Salwín; later on, it was taken by Radzadierit.

Dúra.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The country is low and well cultivated, and protected from inundation by the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) embankments. Pop. (1876), 7216; gross revenue, £3153.

Dúra.—An extensive group of intercommunicating lakes in Henzada township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The Dúra proper is about 2 square miles in extent, and is connected with the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) by the Atha-rwot stream; it is divided into two portions by an island. The Moshún portion is 2½ miles in length, and from 300 to 400 yards in breadth, with a depth of from 6 to 9 feet of water in the dry season. The other chief lakes are the Engtha-nwot, length 1400 feet, maximum breadth 700 feet, and depth of water 4 to 6 feet; and the Mobalai, with about 5 feet of water in the dry weather. These lakes are fed by the drainage of the surrounding country, but the Irawadi embankments have now closed the mouths of the streams by which they communicated with that river during the rains.

Durduriá.—Site of a ruined fort in Dacca District, Bengal, said to have been built by the Bhuiyá Rájás; its popular name is Ránibárí. Dr. Taylor states that the fort is laid out in the shape of a crescent, bounded by the river Banar. In 1839, the outer wall, upwards of 2 miles in circuit, was 12 or 14 feet high. The citadel, which appears to have had three openings, contains the remains of two buildings, one of which seems to have been a tower. Opposite to Durduriá are the foundations of a town, of which the only vestiges existing in 1839 were mounds and loose bricks scattered over the surface of the plain.

Durgárayapatnam (*Zuvarayapatam*, 'City of the Minister,' Telugu).—Town in the Gúdúr *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 13° 59′ N., long. 80° 12′ E.; houses, 372; pop. (1871), 1970. Formerly the chief of

the group of small ports—Púdi, Pamanji, Túpili—lying near the Armeghon lighthouse, but now of as little commercial importance as the others, the East Coast Canal having diverted the coasting traffic upon which they depended. Still possesses a customs' station and a fine travellers' bungalow. The salt manufacture at this place is of some repute. Historically, Durgárayapatnam, or Armeghon as it is sometimes called, is of interest as being the first British settlement on the Coromandel coast. In 1625, after unsuccessful attempts to settle at Pulicat and Masulipatam, a colony was established here; and in 1628 a factory was built at Chenna Kupam (renamed 'Arumugam,' in recognition of the friendly aid given by Arumugam Modelliar, the chief man of the native town), and fortified with 12 guns. The remnants of the Masulipatam settlement was then transferred here. But owing to the interference of the Dutch at Pulicat, and the hostility of the Rájá of Venkatagiri, the trade languished; and on the chief factor's recommendation to move the settlement to some spot south of Pulicat, the site of Madras city was purchased.

Durod.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £118; tribute of £36 is paid to the British Government, and £5 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Durrung.—District of Assam.—*See* DARRANG.

Dussara.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 22 villages, with 6 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £6000; a tribute of £1296 is payable to the British Government.

Dútieya Khareng.—Revenue circle in the Gyaing Attaran township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It occupies a tract of country stretching southward from the junction of the Hlaingbhwai and Houngtharaw rivers. Pop. (1876), 477, mainly Karengs; land revenue, £46, and capitation tax, £60.

Dwárband.—Pass in the Tiláin range of hills, in Cáchár District, Assam, through which the road has been led joining Hailakándi with the station of Silchár.

Dwarikeswar.—River of Bengal.—*See* DHALKISOR.

Dwarká.—A place of Hindu pilgrimage, situated in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay, within the dominions of the Gáekwár of Baroda. Lat. 22° 14′ 20″ N., and long. 69° 5′ E.; 235 miles south-west of Ahmedabad, and 270 west of Baroda; pop. (1872), 4712.

Dwarká (or *Babla*).—An unnavigable river of Bengal, rising in the Santál Parganás District; in lat. 23° 57′ N., and long. 87° 21′ E. Thence it enters Bírbhúm from the north, and from Bírbhúm passes into Murshidábád near Margrám town. At first the course of the Dwarká is easterly, until joined by the Bráhminí stream at Rámchandrapur.

It then turns towards the south-east, and receives the Mor and Kuiyá, two rivers also flowing down from Bírbhúm towards the Bhágirathi. At this point the numerous back-waters commence which connect the Dwarká with the BHAGIRATHI, a branch of the Ganges or Padmá.

Dwarkeswar.—River of Bengal.—*See* DHALKISOR.

Dwár-khaling.—Forest reserve in Darrang District, Assam, skirting the southern base of the Bhután Hills. Area, 6242 acres. The *mahál* or fiscal division of the same name has an area of 194 square miles; pop. (1872), 7224; revenue (1875), £1487.

Dwárs, Eastern.—The Subdivision of the Eastern Dwárs forms an integral portion of Goálpára District, under the Chief Commissioner of Assam. It lies between 26° 19′ and 26° 54′ N. lat., and between 89° 55′ and 91° E. long. It is bounded on the north by the hills of Independent Bhután; on the east by the Manás and Dhirsutí rivers, separating it from the District of Kámrúp; on the south by the main portion of Goálpára District; and on the west by the Gadádhar or Sankosh river, which separates it from the Western Dwárs, attached to Jalpáigurí District, in Bengal, and the State of Kuch Behar. According to the Revenue Survey conducted in 1869-70, the area amounts to 1568·10 square miles, and the population to 37,047 persons. The Census of 1872 was not extended to this tract. The principal town, or rather village, is BIJNI; but the Subdivision is administered from GOALPARA town, the headquarters of the entire District.

Physical Aspects.—The Eastern Dwárs form a flat strip of country, lying beneath the Bhután Mountains. The only elevated tract is Bhumeswar Hill, which rises abruptly out of the plains to the height of nearly 400 feet, and may be regarded as a detached spur of the Gáro Hills on the south of the Brahmaputra. The remainder is an absolute level, intersected by numerous streams, and overgrown with wild vegetation. In some parts there are extensive tracts of *sál* forest; but the greater portion is covered with heavy grass and reed jungle, amid which the beautiful cotton-tree (Bombax pentandrum) is the only timber-tree to be seen. This grass jungle is especially thick along the banks of the rivers, where it is almost impenetrable to man. The few villages are marked by clearings of rice and mustard cultivation. The houses themselves are embowered in clumps of bamboos and plantains, above which tower the graceful betel-nut, palm, and various fruit trees. At the foot of the mountains, where the rivers debouch upon the plain, the scenery assumes a grander aspect.

The following eleven rivers are navigable by native boats throughout the year:—Manás, Dalání, Pákájání, Ai, Kánámákrá, Chámpámátí, Gauráng, Saralbhángá, Gangiá, Gurupálá, and Gadádhar. In addition, there are numerous small streams which become navigable during the rainy season. By far the most important channel of communication is

afforded by the MANAS, which might be navigated by steamers of light draught. All the rivers take their rise in the Bhután Hills, and flow in a southerly direction into the Brahmaputra. Their beds are filled with boulders in the hills, but they become sandy as they advance into the plain. There is a peculiar tract of pebbles, gravel, and sand fringing the hills, into which the water of all the minor streams sinks during the greater part of the year, not again appearing above ground until it reaches the alluvial clay.

The valuable forests of the Eastern Dwárs have recently been placed under Government supervision. The area which has been declared 'open forest' amounts to 422 square miles, or just one quarter of the aggregate area of the Subdivision. About 80 square miles are *sál* timber, which is described as the most valuable property in the whole Province of Assam, and should yield an annual produce of 25,000 trees. At present, however, owing to the indiscriminate havoc wrought in former years by the Bengali woodcutters, there are no mature trees left standing. Besides *sál* (Shorea robusta) the following timber-trees are carefully preserved in an 'open forest':—*Sissu* (Dalbergia sisú); *khair* (Acacia catechu), and *chelauní* (Schima *vel* Gordonia mollis); all other timber is free. The great danger to which the forests are exposed is the spread of *júm* cultivation, by which fresh tracts of jungle are fired every year. Stringent regulations are enforced against this practice within Government reserves. The jungle products include lac, bees-wax, *pipáli* or long pepper (Chavica roxburghii), and a creeper from which a red dye called *ásu* is obtained. No metals or mineral products are known to exist. Wild animals of all kinds abound, including elephant, rhinoceros, buffalo, tiger, bear, hog, and deer.

History.—This tract first became British territory as the result of the Bhután war of 1864, and does not possess any independent history of its own. It is known, however, that the despotic rule of the Bhutiás was only of recent date. The earliest dynasty that can be localized in this tract is that of Visu Sinh, the ancestor of the Kuch Behar Rájás, who founded an empire in the 16th century on the ruins of an earlier kingdom, extending from Darrang in the upper valley of the Brahmaputra to the frontier of Purniah in Bengal. But this wide empire rapidly fell to pieces, owing partly to the anarchical system, by which large tracts were granted out as appanages to younger sons of the royal family. In this way the Rájás of Bijni and Sidli Dwárs, as well as the Rájá of Darrang, acquired their present estates. While the State thus became enfeebled, invaders were pressing forward from every quarter. On the west, the Mughals rapidly advanced, and annexed the permanently-settled portion of Goálpára to their Province of Bengal. The wild tribe of Ahams spread down the Brahmaputra valley, and maintained themselves at the ancient capital of Gauháti against the

Musalmán armies. At about the same time, the Dwárs or lowland passes along the foot of the mountains fell to the Bhutiás, who here found the cultivable ground that their own bare mountains did not afford. They exercised predominant influence over the whole tract from the frontier of Sikkim as far east as Darrang, and frequently enforced claims of suzerainty over the enfeebled State of Kuch Behar. They do not appear to have occupied this tract permanently, but merely to have exacted a heavy tribute, and subjected the miserable inhabitants to the cruellest treatment. In contradistinction to the results of Muhammadan rule, it is to be observed that the Buddhism of the Bhutiás has left no traces in the religion of the native population. Kuch Behar was delivered from the Bhutiá tyranny by the treaty of 1772, in accordance with which the Rájá placed himself under British protection, and paid tribute to the East India Company. The Bhután Dwárs, as they were called, remained for nearly a century longer in a state of anarchy. In 1863, a British ambassador was subjected to gross insults by the Bhután Government; and, as a punishment, it was resolved to annex the Dwárs to British territory. Accordingly, in December 1864, four strong military columns made a simultaneous advance, and occupied the low country and the hill passes above, after slight opposition. In the tract known as the Western Dwárs, which is now a portion of the Bengal District of Jalpáigurí, a temporary reverse to the British arms was experienced in the following spring; but before the close of 1865, the Bhutiás consented to accept the terms of peace which had been offered to them before the outbreak of hostilities. By this treaty the Dwárs were ceded in perpetuity to the British Government, and an annual allowance of £2500 was granted to the Bhután Rájá, which sum may be increased to £5000, or withdrawn altogether, at the option of the British. Since that date our relations with Bhután have been entirely peaceful. The frontier raids, which were formerly of frequent occurrence, have altogether ceased. A brisk traffic has sprung up on the frontier, and cultivation is rapidly extending in the annexed territory.

The Bhután Dwárs were forthwith divided into the two administrative Districts of the Eastern and Western Dwárs, of which the latter has since been apportioned between the Bengal Districts of Jalpáigurí and Dárjíling. The Eastern Dwárs were at first placed in charge of a Deputy Commissioner, with his headquarters at the village of Datmá, in the Goálpára *parganá* of Khuntaghát. In December 1866, they were completely incorporated with the District of Goálpára, and have since shared in all the changes of jurisdiction by which that District has been transferred between Bengal and Assam. Since 1872, when Assam was erected into an independent Province under a Chief Commissioner, the Eastern Dwárs have been permanently detached from Bengal. But

though the settled portion of Goálpára and the Eastern Dwárs are under the control of a single officer, the system of administration is quite distinct. By Act XVI. of 1869, all matters relating to immoveable property, revenue, and rent, are exempted from the jurisdiction of the civil courts. The property in the soil is vested in the State. By the settlement which expired in March 1877, leases were granted for seven years. In some of the Dwárs these leases were granted direct to the cultivators, without the interposition of any middle-men; but in other cases the Rájás received farming leases of the whole area over which they claimed to exercise authority. The latter system has not been found advantageous; and for the future it has been proposed to effect the land assessment with the cultivators year by year, according to the method universally adopted in Assam proper. During the settlement of 1869-70 a careful record was made of all rights and interests in the land, and the extension of cultivation was greatly encouraged. It is believed that the population has approximately doubled during the ten years that have elapsed since British annexation.

Population.—At the time of the settlement of 1869-70, the Deputy Commissioner personally conducted an enumeration of the people; and consequently it was not thought desirable to repeat the operation at the regular Census in 1872. The enumeration of the Deputy Commissioner showed a total population of 37,047 persons, dwelling in 2863 enclosures or villages and in 6888 houses. The area of the Eastern Dwárs is 1568 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 53, varying from 50 in Bíjni Dwár to only 1 in Chirang Dwár; houses per square mile, 4·39. The average number of persons per enclosure is 12·94; of persons per house, 5·38. The detailed Census forms of race and religion were not applied to the Eastern Dwárs. The Deputy Commissioner, however, obtained returns of the male and female population according to age, and of the tribe or caste of the adult males. The males number 19,240, and the females, 17,807; proportion of males, 52 per cent. Divided according to age, there are, under twelve years, 6763 boys and 5613 girls—total, 12,376, or 33 per cent. of the population. The great bulk of the inhabitants belong to the two aboriginal tribes of Mech or Cáchárí and Koch or Rájbansí. The number of Hindus proper is very small, and the Muhammadans only number 110, who are supposed to represent proselytes made at the time of the Mughal conquest of Goálpára. The Mechs are returned by the Deputy Commissioner as numbering 8752 adult males, or 70 per cent. of the total. This tribe is generally regarded as cognate to the Koch, Cáchárí, Gáro, and Rábhá, all of whom inhabit this part of the country. According to local authority, the names of Mech and Cáchárí are indifferently applied to the same people, the latter name being especially used in the extreme east of the

District. The tribe is widely scattered over all North-Eastern Bengal, being able to support life in the malarious *tarái* that continuously fringes the first slopes of the Himálayas. In the Eastern Dwárs, and especially in Sidli Dwár, where, under the Bhután Government, they remained comparatively free from Hindu influences, they have preserved their own language and customs in greater purity than elsewhere. They describe themselves as having originally come from a place they call Rangsar, on the south side of the upper valley of the Brahmaputra, whence they were gradually pushed westwards into Assam. Their occupation of the Eastern Dwárs is said not to date back for more than a hundred years. Owing to the anarchy that prevailed in Assam towards the close of the last century, the majority of the population crowded into the frontier District of Goálpára. The upper classes returned to Assam upon our annexation of the Province in 1824-25; but the poorer wanderers settled permanently in the *parganás* of Khuntághát and Hábrághát, whence they have recently spread into the Eastern Dwárs. At the present time, they are rapidly falling under the influence of Hinduism, and converts find no difficulty in being received among the Rájbansí and other mongrel castes. Their indigenous religion consists in the propitiation of evil spirits by the sacrifice of fowls. Converts to Hinduism are known as Soroniás, but the change does not seem to be very extensive; they are only required to bathe, to call on the name of some *guru* or spiritual instructor, and to abstain from pork and liquor. Their social condition is very low. They do not appear to have ever achieved any form of polity of their own. They have but few traditions, no ancient songs, no monuments, no written character, and no literature of any kind. Their marriage ceremony preserves the primitive form of abduction. They still retain migratory habits, which are illustrated by the nomadic form of agriculture known as *júm*. On the other hand, they are not destitute of the virtues of savages. They are more uniformly honest and trustworthy than the lowland peasantry; chastity is esteemed a virtue, and crime of any sort is rare. Above all, the Mechs are possessed of a physical constitution that enables them to live and flourish all the year through in a malarious tract which is absolutely fatal to strangers; and their rude methods of agriculture are gradually rendering the country habitable for successors of a superior race. The Rájbansís number 2400 adult males, or 20 per cent. of the total. This tribe is identical with the Koch of Assam and of Kuch Behar. They are said to have originally inhabited the lower ranges of hills to the north, and to have first descended into the plains in about the 16th century. The high-sounding name of Rájbansí, meaning 'of the royal kindred,' is adopted by those Kochs who have embraced Hinduism, as well as by converts from other aboriginal tribes. Among Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 16 adult males; the

Rájputs, 2; the Káyasths, 13; the Banias or shopkeepers, 1. The most numerous of the pure Súdra castes is the Kolitá (23), who acted as priests to the native kings of Assam, and are now engaged as peons, clerks, and cultivators. The Bairágis, or religious mendicants of the Vishnuvite sect, are returned at 20 adult males; the Goswámís or Gosáins, who are their spiritual preceptors, at 5. The Bráhma Samáj has no followers in the Eastern Dwárs. Two native Christian preachers have recently been stationed at Bíjni by the Church Missionary Society.

The population is absolutely rural, every person being directly engaged in agriculture. The only village that possesses a permanent *bázár* is BIJNI, and even small shops are rarely to be seen. There is abundance of spare land that can easily be brought under cultivation, and the sparsely scattered inhabitants are described as being all prosperous and contented. Immigration is steadily going on from the neighbouring *parganás* of Kámrúp and Goálpára, and the new-comers at once amalgamate with the rest of the people, as they are usually of the same race.

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop throughout the Eastern Dwárs is rice, which is cultivated in three principal varieties. The *áus* or *ásu* crop is sown on comparatively high lands in March; it is not transplanted, and reaped in July. The *báo* or *bává*, which is a long-stemmed variety, is not much grown. The *áman*, *haimantik*, or *sáli* furnishes the greater portion of the food supply; it is sown broadcast in nurseries in June, transplanted in the following month, and reaped in December. Mustard seed is extensively grown as a second crop after *áus* rice. Minor crops include vegetables, barley, pulse, tobacco, *pán* or betel-leaf, and betel-nut (Areca catechu). According to the Survey of 1869-70, out of a total area of more than one million acres, only 51,224, or about one-twentieth, are under cultivation,—thus subdivided: *sáli* rice, 32,296; *áus* rice and mustard, 15,498; homestead lands, 2493. The Mechs follow the *júm* method of cultivation, and raise a good deal of cotton on their forest clearings in addition to the ordinary crops. Manure is only used for the *pán* plant, and then in the form of refuse from the cow-sheds. Irrigation is universally practised in the case of the *sáli* rice crop. The cultivators combine to cut channels from the hill streams, by which they distribute the water over their fields. Waste land is abundant on all sides, and consequently the same fields are never cultivated after they begin to lose their natural productiveness. *Aus* land is generally abandoned after two years; but *sáli* land continues to yield annual crops for a longer period. The entire soil is the property of Government, and, by the settlement of 1869-70, was leased out for a term of seven years, on conditions favourable to the spread of cultivation. The rates of rent then fixed were the following:—For

homestead and *sáli* lands, 3s. per acre; for *áus* lands, 1s. 6d. per acre. The average out-turn from an acre of *sáli* land is estimated at about 23 cwts. of paddy or unhusked rice, valued at £2, 15s.; an acre of *áus* land yields about 15 cwts. of paddy, and an additional 5 cwts. of mustard seed, the whole being valued at £2, 5s. Women and children are largely employed in the fields.

No professional class of day-labourers exists in the Eastern Dwárs; but coolies may sometimes be obtained for 4d. a day. Agricultural labourers are generally remunerated by being allowed to retain a fixed share of the produce, without having any interest in the soil. Artisans also, such as smiths or carpenters, are paid in kind for any odd job they may do. The price of rice varies regularly with the season of the year. Best rice shortly after harvest sells at about 5s. 5d. per cwt., which gradually rises through the year till it reaches 8s. 2d., just before the *áman* crop is gathered. Similarly the price of common rice varies from 2s. 8d. to 5s. 5d per cwt. Unhusked paddy fetches from one-third to one-half the price of cleaned rice. The prices of food grains were not affected by the famines of 1866 and 1874.

Since the Eastern Dwárs came under British rule in 1864, such a calamity as the general destruction of the harvest by either flood, drought, or blight has been unknown and unthought of. The rice crops have been occasionally injured by river floods and excessive local rainfall. The irrigation universally practised by the cultivators furnishes an efficient guarantee against the effects of drought. If an unprecedented misfortune were to happen, and the price of rice were to rise to 10s. per cwt. at the beginning of the year, that should be regarded as a sign of approaching famine. The wild tribes, however, know how to support life on various jungle products, and the numerous rivers afford ample means of communication. The only road in the Eastern Dwárs is one that crosses the whole Subdivision from east to west, running a length of 73 miles. It is interrupted by unbridged rivers and swampy tracts, and becomes altogether impassable during the rainy season. Wheeled carts are nowhere used.

Manufactures, etc.—There is no manufacturing class in the Eastern Dwárs. In addition to their livelihood of agriculture, the people make for themselves their own houses, their own clothes, baskets, and mats. Brass utensils and pottery require to be purchased from Goálpára. The only article manufactured for sale is a coarse silk fabric called *eriá*, which is woven from the cocoons of a worm fed on the castor-oil plant (Ricinus communis). A piece, 14 feet long by 4 feet broad, sells for from 12s. to £1, according to the fineness of its texture. The Mechs also hollow out the trunks of trees into boats, called *dungás*, which are floated down the streams in the rainy season for sale on the Brahmaputra. This industry is mainly supported by advances from the Goálpára merchants.

The trade of the Eastern Dwárs is mainly conducted by barter, and is in the hands of Márwárí merchants from Goálpára and Kámrúp. Boats come up the rivers during the rainy season, and transact their business at the villages on the river banks. There are no large permanent markets. The principal articles of export are rice, mustard seed, *eriá* cloth, cotton, india-rubber, a dye called *ásu*, timber, and boats; in exchange for which are received brass-ware, pottery, salt, cotton cloth, oil, spices, cocoa-nuts, and miscellaneous hardware. In ordinary seasons, the crops provide a considerable surplus for exportation.

Administration.—The Subdivision consists of the following 5 Dwárs:—BIJNI—area 374 square miles, pop. (1870) 18,837; SIDLI—area 361 square miles, pop. 12,696; CHIRANG—area 495 square miles, pop. 756; RIPU—area 242 square miles, pop. 2645; GUMA—area 96 square miles, pop. 2113. The administrative statistics cannot be separated from those of the District of Goálpára, and are given in the aggregate in the special article on that District. It is there stated that the total land revenue from temporarily settled estates, which may be assumed to be co-extensive with the Eastern Dwárs, amounted in 1874-75 to £5158, collected from 27 estates. The tract is entirely administered from Goálpára town, and no European officer is permanently stationed in it.

A settlement of the land revenue was made for seven years in 1870. Chirang Dwár was held *khás*, or, in other words, engagements were taken from the occupants actually in possession; for the four other Dwárs collective leases were granted to neighbouring landlords or chiefs. Provision was made for the protection of occupancy rights, and permission to extend cultivation was conceded to the leaseholders, who receive the profits arising from such extension during the currency of their term. The following is a brief sketch of the recent history of Sidli Dwár:—It was settled with Gaurí Náráyan, the hereditary Rájá of Sidli, at a revenue of £1939 a year, which sum had been arrived at after a regular measurement of the cultivated land, and a deduction of 30 per cent. for landlord's profits and cost of collection. In the first year of his lease, the Rájá failed to discharge the Government demand, and the estate was forthwith placed under the Court of Wards, who have equally failed to collect the assessed revenue. In 1874-75, after the payment of certain allowances to the dispossessed Rájá and his infant son, only £1620 remained to be paid into the treasury.

Dwars, Western.—Subdivision of Jalpáiguri District, Bengal. This tract, together with the EASTERN DWARS, was taken from the Bhutiás, and annexed to British India in 1864, in order to put a stop to incessant raids by the Bhutiás upon the people in British territory lying along the foot of the hills (*vide supra*, p. 191). These Dwars are 9 in number, viz.:—(1) BHALKA, area (1870), 119 square miles; 856 houses; pop. 6544; (2) BHATIBARI, area, 149 square miles; 824 houses; pop.

5874; (3) BAXA, area, 300 square miles; 714 houses; pop. 5142; (4) CHAKOA-KSHATTRIYA, area, 138 square miles; 277 houses; pop. 2335; (5) MADARI, area, 194 square miles; 663 houses; pop. 4961; (6) LAKSHMIPUR, area, 165 square miles; 577 houses; pop. 3780; (7) MARAGHAT, area, 342 square miles; 1846 houses; pop. 11,873; (8) MAINAGURI, area, 309 square miles; 8134 houses; pop. 44,416; (9) CHENGMARI, area, 146 square miles; 903 houses; pop. 5138. Total area (1870), 1862 square miles; 14,794 houses; pop. 90,063. Later returns give the area at 1880 square miles.

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Eastern Dwárs.—Tract of country in Goálpára District, Assam.—*See* DWARS, EASTERN.

Eastern Gháts.—Mountain range extending along the Eastern coast of India.—*See* GHATS.

Edar.—The principal Rájput State of the Máhi Kánta Agency in Guzerat (Gujarát), under the political superintendence of the Government of Bombay; bounded on the north by Sirohi (Sirohee) and Udáipur (Oodeypore), on the east by Dúngarpur, and on the south and west by the territories of the Bombay Presidency and the Gáekwár of Baroda. Estimated pop. (1875), 217,382; estimated gross revenue, including transit dues, £60,000. The exact area of the State has not been ascertained, but the area of land under cultivation is estimated at 200,000 acres. Soil generally fertile; in some places it is of a light sandy nature, in others rich and black; towards the north and north-eastern parts near the hills, poor and stony. A peculiar feature of the country is the abundance of *mahuá*, mango, *khirni*, and other fruit trees. The jungle in some parts, particularly at the foot of the hills, is very thick and intersected with ravines. Principal products—grains, oil-seeds, sugar-cane; manufactures—opium, and a small quantity of country soap. There are quarries in the neighbourhood of Ahmednagar, and the stone is used for building purposes.

The greater part of the population are Kolis, the remainder consists of Rájputs, Bráhmans, Banias, Kúmbís, etc. The present ruling family, though Rájputs of the most ancient lineage, only arrived in Edar at a comparatively recent date. Tradition relates that the original sovereigns of Edar, as in most of the rest of Guzerat, were Bhalsúr Kolis. The last chief of this tribe was named Sambla. Being a debauched and vicious man, his ministers conspired against him, and invited Ráo Sonag of Simatra, the ancestor of the Ráos of Pol, to their aid. This chief killed Sámbla, and took possession of his territory. About twelve generations of this family are reckoned to the expulsion of Jagannáth,

the last Ráo of Edar, in 1656, by Murad Baksh, at that time the Subahdár of Guzerat. A Desai or Deputy was afterwards placed in charge of Edar for some years. In 1729, Anand Sinh and Rái Sinh, two brothers of the Rájá of Jodhpur, accompanied by a few horsemen from Vamo and Pálanpur and the Kolis of Godwára, established themselves in Edar without much difficulty. This family is the last that effected a settlement in Guzerat by conquest. They are said to have acted under an order from Delhi; but the truth seems to be, that they were tempted by the state of the country, and most likely assisted by the Márwár princes, who at that period held the Subahdárí of Ahmedábád. The Edar principality consisted of the districts of Edar, Ahmednagar, Morása, Báad, Harsol, Parántij, and Vizápur, to which five other districts were rendered tributary. Some years after the conquest, at the instigation of the Desai above mentioned, who appears to have been displaced by the Márwáris, an officer in the service of Damájí Gáekwár, named Bachájí Duváji, was despatched on the part of the Peshwá to take possession of Edar. This he accomplished with the aid of the Rahwár Rájputs, the servants of the late Ráo. Anand Sinh was killed about 1753; and Bachájí, after leaving a detachment behind, returned to Ahmedábád. Rái Sinh, however, collected a force, and again obtained possession of Edar. Seo Sinh, son of Anand Sinh, now became ruler under the guardianship of his uncle Rái Sinh, who died in 1766. During the rule of Seo Sinh, the State was stripped, by the Peshwá, of Parántij, Vizápur, and half of the three districts of Morása, Báad, and Harsol, which districts were afterwards ceded by the Peshwá to the British Government. The other half of the Edar territories fell to the Gáekwár, who contented himself with the exaction of a share of the annual revenues, which at the settlement of 1812 was fixed in perpetuity at Rs. 24,001 (say £2400) for Edar, and Rs. 8952 (say £895) for Ahmednagar. Seo Sinh died in 1791, leaving five sons, the eldest of whom, Bhawán Sinh, succeeded him, but died in a few days, leaving the State to his son Gambhír Sinh, a boy of ten years. Dissensions in the family now arose, which resulted in the temporary dismemberment of Edar. Sugram Sinh, second son of Seo Sinh, who had received Ahmednagar from his father in feudal grant, assumed independence; and with his assistance Zalim Sinh and Amír Sinh, two other sons of Seo Sinh, after a long struggle possessed themselves respectively of Morása and Báad during Gambhír Sinh's minority. Indra Sinh, the fifth son of Seo Sinh, who was blind, received Sur and three other villages for his support. Sugram Sinh, chief of Ahmednagar, died in 1798, and was succeeded by his son Kuran Sinh. Zalim Sinh of Morása died childless in 1806, and his appanage ought to have lapsed to Edar. His widow, however, was allowed by the Gáekwár to adopt Pratáp Sinh, Kurun Sinh's brother, on whose death, in 1821,

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Mahárájá Juwán Sinh, a Knight Commander of the Star of India, and a member of the Legislative Council of Bombay, died in 1868, and was succeeded by his son Keshri Sinhjí, the present Mahárájá, who was born in 1861. He is a Rájput of the Rahtor clan and the Joda family. He exercises first-class jurisdiction, having power to inflict capital punishment. He holds a *sanad* giving him the right of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. There are many relatives of the Mahárájá and feudal chiefs whose ancestors helped to secure the country for the present dynasty, and who now enjoy large estates on service tenures. The revenues of the State are shared by the Rájá with these feudal chiefs. In 1875, out of a total gross revenue of £60,000, it was estimated that only £25,000 was received by the central authority. The Mahárájá receives £1914 annually from several chiefs in the Máhi Kánta, and pays £3034 as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chiefs subordinate to Edar hold their estates on condition of military service, the quota being 3 horsemen for every £100 of revenue. The actual force maintained by them amounts to about 568 cavalry, and the same number of infantry, all undisciplined.

Edar.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Guzerat, Bombay. Lat. 23° 50′ N., long. 73° 4′ E.; 64 miles north-east of Ahmedábád. The town is traditionally known as Ildúrg.

Eddawána.—Village in Malabar District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 59′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 45′ 50″ E., on the left bank of the Beypore (Bepur) river, at the head of its navigable course, and 8 miles above Ariákod. Houses, 820; pop. (1871), 4471.

Edwardesábád (or *Dhulípnagar*).—Municipal town, cantonment, and administrative headquarters of Bannu District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 3176. Situated in lat. 32° 59′ 45″ N., and long. 70° 38′ 51″ E., near the north-west corner of the District, 1 mile south of the river Kuram, and 89 miles north of Derá Ismáil Khán. Founded in 1848 by Major (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, who selected the site for political reasons. The fort, erected at the same time, bore the name of Dhulípgarh, in honour of the young Mahárájá of Lahore; and the *bázár* was also known as Dhulípnagar. A town gradually grew up around the cantonment, and many Hindu traders removed hither from the village of Bázár Ahmad Khán, which formed the commercial centre

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of the Bannu valley prior to the annexation. The main *bázár* consists of a wide and handsome roadway, and contains a fine market-place. A mud wall runs round the town, within which lie the *tahsíli* and police office. The civil station, to the west of the fort, includes the court-house, treasury, jail, *sarái*, staging bungalow, dispensary, mounted police lines, and post office. The Church Missionary Society supports a small church and a school-house. The cantonment centres round the fort of Dhulípnagar, which possesses quarters for two infantry regiments; outside the fortifications are lines for a cavalry regiment and a field battery of artillery. The profuse irrigation and insufficient drainage of the surrounding fields render Edwardesábád a swampy and unhealthy station; and the troops in cantonments suffer greatly from malarious fevers and prostration. The town has a considerable trade, embracing the whole traffic in local produce of the Bannu valley. A weekly fair collects an average number of 2000 buyers and sellers. Chief articles of trade—cloth, live stock, wool, cotton, tobacco, and grain. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1115, or 5s. 8½d. per head of population (3900) within municipal limits.

Egatpura (or *Egutpoora*).—Town in Násik District, Bombay.—*See* IGATPURI.

Egmore.—Quarter of MADRAS TOWN.

Ekambá.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 58′ N., long. 87° 36′ 30″ E. One of the chief seats of commerce in the District, with trade in agricultural products, spices, piece-goods, hides, etc. carried on at permanent markets. Large annual fair held in February.

Eklaspur.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 2441.

Ekwárí.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 2661.

Elatúr.—River of Madras; rises in the mountains west of the Tambur Cherri Pass, in lat. 11° 30′ 0″ N., and long. 75° 56′ 0″ E., and, after a devious course of 30 miles through Malabar District, flows into the extensive backwater which communicates with the sea at Elatúr, in lat. 11° 20′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 45′ 45″ E. Near this place are several islets whence fine views of the Wainád Mountains are obtained; it is a favourite resort of the residents of Calicut.

Elavárásanandal (*Iliyarasainendal*).—Group of agricultural hamlets in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 12′ N., long. 77° 50′ E. Pop. (1871), 14,803; number of houses, 3452.

Elephanta (called by the natives *Ghárápurí*).—An island on the Bombay coast, situated in lat. 18° 57′ N., and long. 73° E., about 6 miles from Bombay City and 4 from the shore of the mainland. The island measures from 4 to 4½ miles in circumference, and consists of two long hills separated by a narrow valley. It was named *Elephanta* by the Portuguese, from a large stone elephant which stood near the old landing-place on the south side of the island. This elephant was

13 feet 2 inches in length, and about 7 feet 4 inches high; but its head and neck dropped off in 1814, and subsequently the body sank down into a shapeless mass of stones, which were, in 1864, removed to the Victoria Gardens in Bombay. Near the point where the two hills approach each other, and not far to the south-east of the Great Cave, once stood the stone statue of a horse, described by an early writer as being 'so lively, with such a colour and carriage, and the shape finisht with that Exactness, that many have rather fancyed it, at a distance, a living Animal, than only a bare Representation.' This statue has disappeared. The landing-place is now on the north-west of the island. Steam launches or sailing boats, which can be hired at the Apollo Bunder, Bombay, run to Elephanta in about an hour; and a small steamer can lie alongside the pier which has been built at the landing-place.

The island is greatly resorted to by visitors to the far-famed rock caves. Of these wonderful excavations, four are complete or nearly so; a fifth is a large cave now much filled up, with only rough masses of stone left to support the roof; and a sixth is merely the beginning of the front of what seems to have been intended for a very small excavation—possibly two or three cells for recluses. The most important and most frequently visited of these rock-temples is the Great Cave, which is situated in the western or larger of the two hills of the island, at an elevation of about 250 feet above high-water level. The entrance is reached by a winding path about three-quarters of a mile in length from the landing-place. The cave faces the north, and is entirely hewn out of a hard compact variety of trap rock. From the front entrance to the back it measures about 130 feet, and its length from the east to the west entrance is the same. It does not, however, occupy the entire square of this area. What may be called the porticoes or the three open sides, are only about 54 feet long and 16½ feet deep. Omitting these and the back aisle, immediately in front of three of the principal sculptured compartments, which is of about the same dimensions as each portico, we may consider the body of the cave as a square of about 91 feet each way, supported by 6 rows of columns with 6 columns in each row, except at the corners, where the uniformity is broken on the west side to make room for the shrine or *sacellum*, which occupies a space equal to that enclosed by four of the columns. There were originally 26 columns, with 16 half-columns; but 8 of the separate pillars have been destroyed, and others are much injured. As neither the floor nor the roof are perfectly horizontal, they vary in height from 15 to 17 feet. The most striking of the sculptures is the famous colossal three-faced bust, or *trímurti*, at the back of the cave, facing the entrance. This is a representation of Siva in his threefold character of Creator, Preserver, and Destroyer; and all the other sculptures relate to the same god, the cave being, like all the other

Hindu rock temples of Western India, a Sivaite one. The *trímurti* is 17 feet 10 inches in height; and a line drawn round the three heads at the level of the eyes measures 22 feet 9 inches in length. The length of the middle face is 4 feet 4 inches; those of the others, 4 feet 1 inch and about 5 feet. In 1865, this unique bust was mutilated by some 'barbarian clothed in the garb of civilisation,' who broke off a portion of the noses of two of the faces; and since then some of the other sculptures in the temple have been similarly treated, so that it has been found necessary to place a sergeant and two native policemen to protect the cave. The *trímurti* is guarded by two gigantic *dwárapálas* or doorkeepers of rock, respectively 12 feet 9 inches, and 13 feet 6 inches high; both figures are much defaced. The Linga chapel, on the right hand side of the temple on entering, contains several *dwárapálas* and other figures; and two compartments on either side of the *trímurti*, are also ornamented with numerous sculptured groups. There are several other compartments in the Great Cave, all containing interesting sculptures, of which it is impossible to give even a bare list in the limits here available. The reader who desires to pursue the subject cannot do better than consult the lucid and exhaustive account of Mr. Burgess (*The Rock Temples of Elephanta or Ghárápurí*, Bombay, 1871), from which this article is chiefly condensed. 'The impression on the mind,' writes Mr. Burgess, 'may be imagined rather than described, when one enters the portico [of the Great Cave], passing from the glare and heat of tropical sunshine to the dim light and cool air of the temple, and realizes that he is under a vast roof of solid rock, that seems to be supported only by the ranges of massive columns that recede in the vistas on every side, some of which appear to have split or fallen under the tremendous superincumbent weight. And the feeling of strange uncertain awe that creeps over the mind is only prolonged when in the obscure light we begin to contemplate the gigantic stony figures ranged along the walls from which they seem to start, and from the living rock of which they are hewn.'

The Second Cave, which is situated a short distance to the south-east of the Great Temple, faces east-north-east, and is 109½ feet in length, including the chapel at the north end. The façade, which was nearly 80 feet in length, is completely destroyed, and the cave is so full of *débris* and so ruined by water that no proper estimate can now be formed of the appearance it originally represented. It contains at present only one sculptured group. At the south end of the portico of this cave is a large block of rock not hewn away, above which is a hole through a thin partition of rock into one of the cells of the Third Rock Temple. The entrance to it, however, is a little to the south. This cave is in an even more dilapidated condition than the second. The Fourth Temple, now known to the natives as 'Sítá Bái's Dewála,' is

situated on the other hill of the island, and about 100 feet above the level of the Great Cave. It is in better preservation than those last mentioned, and had formerly a beautiful gate with a marble porch of exquisite workmanship; but these have now disappeared.

Sufficient data do not exist to enable us to fix, with anything like precision, the date of the Elephanta Caves. An absurd tradition attributes them to Alexander the Great, and many not less unreasonable conjectures have been hazarded regarding them. Mr. Fergusson concludes (for reasons for which the reader is referred to his *Rock-cut Temples of India*) that the Great Temple was excavated in the 10th century of our era; but Mr. Burgess, while admitting that there are grounds for this conclusion, is inclined to attribute them to the latter part of the 8th or to the 9th century.

The Great Temple is still used on Sivaite festivals, and specially by Hindus of the Banian caste; and at the *Sivarátri*, the greatest of the Sivaite festivals, just before the first new moon falling after the middle of February, a religious fair is held here. The view from the front of the great cave is very beautiful; and from the site of an old bungalow, not far from the porch, a fine prospect is commanded of Bombay harbour, with Butcher Island in the foreground.

Ellenábád.—Municipal town in Sírsa District, Punjab; situated in lat. 29° 26′ N., and long. 75° 54′ E., on the banks of the Ghaggar, 23 miles west of Sírsa. Pop. (1868), 3414. Founded in 1865 by Mr. Oliver, Deputy Commissioner. Has great facilities, as a frontier town, for trade with Márwár, and merchants have settled on the spot in considerable numbers. Export and import traffic in country produce and salt with the towns of Bíkaner (Bickaneer) State. Manufacture of coarse woollen cloth. Police outpost; dispensary. On the opposite side of the Ghaggar lie the ruins of the ancient town of Khariál. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £304, or 1s. 10d. per head of population (3293) within municipal limits.

Ellichpur (*Ilichpur*).—A British District in the Commissionership of East Berar, within the Haidarábád Assigned Districts, lying between 20° 50′ 30″ and 21° 46′ 30″ N. lat., and between 76° 40′ and 77° 54′ E. long. Area (Parliamentary return for 1878), 2623 square miles; pop. (Parliamentary return revised from Census of 1867), 278,576; nine-tenths Hindus. Bounded on the north by the Tápti river, and Betul and Chindwára Districts of the Central Provinces; on the east by the Wardha river; on the south by Amráoti District; and on the west by Nimár and Akola.

Physical Aspects.—The entire northern half of Ellichpur consists of a succession of hills and valleys known as the Melghát or Gáwilgarh Hills, a section of the Sátpura Mountains. The main ridge or watershed of the Sátpuras runs through the District from east to west,

attaining its greatest elevation at Bairát, 3987 feet above sea level. The southern portion of the District is flat, and drained by numerous small streams flowing into the Wardha and Purná rivers. The only metalled road is that from Amráoti to Ellichpur; but there are several other country roads and fair-weather tracks from village to village passable for eight months in the year. In the hill country, the chief passes are Mallára on the east, and Dúlghát and Bingára on the west, none of which, however, are practicable for wheeled vehicles.

Agriculture and Commerce.—The principal agricultural products are rice and wheat (of excellent quality), gram, pulses, and oil-seeds; and these, together with *ghí* and forest timber, comprise the chief exports of the District. The imports are mainly English and country cloth, iron and copper utensils, tobacco, salt, sugar, etc.

As regards physical aspects and economic conditions, the MELGHAT, or Upper Tract, forms the most interesting part of Ellichpur District, and will be dealt with separately.

History.—The History of the District centres in Ellichpur town, which formed an important nucleus of Muhammadan influence in the Deccan. Tradition asserts that the city was founded by Rájá Il, a Jain, who came from Khánjáma Nagár, near Wádgáon, about 1058 A.D. Whatever may be the date of its foundation, the town certainly holds no mean rank among the ancient historical cities of India, and during a short period it was a well-known capital. It lost most of its local importance from the time when the first Nizám-ul-Mulk became supreme ruler in the Deccan, and the city was placed under a viceroy or governor. The first governor appointed was Ewaz Khán, who ruled five years—from 1724 to 1728—and was succeeded by Sújáyat Khán (1729 to 1740), who quarrelled with Raghojí Bhonslá, fought with him near Bhúgáon, and was killed in the battle. The Ellichpur treasury on that occasion was plundered by the victor. Sharíf Khán next succeeded, and held office from 1741 to 1752. He claimed equality with the Nizám, who consequently deposed him. The Nizám's son, Alí Jáh Bahádur, was then appointed governor, but he administered by deputy, and was succeeded by Salábat Khán, who, though he only remained two years at Ellichpur, did much to improve the city. He enlarged the palace, made a great public Bágh, and extended the ancient water-channel. He was a brave soldier, and on the war breaking out between the Nizám and Tipú Sultán, he was ordered to join the army, and distinguished himself there, and afterwards at the battle of Kardla, also with General Wellesley's army in 1803. Námdár Khán, son of Salábat Khán, received, besides his *jágír* of 2 *lákhs* of rupees (£20,000), another of like value at Ellichpur, and managed his estate under the title of Nawáb until his death in 1843. He is said to have been placed specially under the protection of General Wellesley by his father, and he received

a *jágír* for the payment of the Ellichpur brigade. After some years, getting into arrears, he gave up the greater part of his *jágír*, merely retaining a rental of 3½ *lákhs* (£3500). Námdár Khán was succeeded by his nephew, Ibráhim Khán, who lived till 1846, when his widow's father, Gholám Hassan, was allowed to inherit the estate and the title of Nawáb, on payment of a *nazarána* of 7 *lakhs*. This sum he borrowed of a local banker, at whose suit the palace, with other property of the Nawáb at Ellichpur, is now under attachment. In 1853, the District was assigned to the British with the rest of Berar.

From the time that the Nizám-ul-Mulk declared his independence, the history of Ellichpur was intimately connected with that of the family of Shádi Khán and Nasíb Khán, two Pathán *zamíndárs*, who originally came from Jáipur (Jeypore) to Haidarábád (Hyderabad) as horse dealers; and there attracting the notice of the Nizám, Násir Jang, rose to high importance. From their descendants the governors of Ellichpur were generally chosen; of these, Ismáil Khán, Salábat Khán, Ballal Khán, Námdár Khán, and Ibráhim Khán were governors of Ellichpur, Námdár Khán receiving the title of Nawáb.

Ellichpur.—Chief town and municipality of Ellichpur District, Berar. Lat. 21° 15′ 30″ N., long. 77° 29′ 30″ E.; pop., according to Census of 1867, 27,782; within municipal limits (1876-77), 27,047. Ellichpur was once a great and prosperous city, and is said to have contained 40,000 houses. It is not on any line of traffic, nor is it the centre of any particular trade, but it was the capital of a local Government until the first Nizám, throwing off his dependence on Delhi, became supreme ruler of the Deccan. Ellichpur was then placed under a viceroy or governor, and from this time it declined rapidly. The town contains several interesting buildings. The *dargáh* or burial shrine, in memory of Dalla Ráhman, built 400 years ago by one of the Báhmani kings, on the bank of the Bichan river, has a spacious *chabutra* or masonry platform, 11 bastions, and 4 gates, and is endowed by the State. The extensive palace, built by Salábat Khán and Ismáil Khán, and afterwards added to by Námdár Khán, has some good carving and stonework, but is rapidly falling to ruin. Some of the tombs of the Nawábs, commenced by Salábat Khán sixty or seventy years ago, are very handsome. A detached fort, 'Sultán Garhi,' built more than a hundred years ago by Sultán Khán, and a very fine well (said to be 500 years old) called Mamdel Sháh, built of stone finely cut, are also worthy of notice. An English-Marathí school is maintained, and also a school for females. Police stations, dispensary, etc. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £1007; incidence of taxation, 7½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

About 2 miles from the city, on the Sápan and Bichan streams, lies PARATWARA, the military cantonment and civil station. A force of all

arms is generally stationed here. The cantonment is well laid out; the hills in the background give it an attractive appearance, but the site is low, and it lies too near the hills to be healthy. A police station and reserve guard are located in the *bázár*. English school and two others in the *bázár*—one for boys and one for girls. A Government garden has also been formed. Small cause court, cantonment and other courts. The population varies with the strength of the troops; in 1876-77, the total was 12,319, of whom about 1000 were military, exclusive of camp followers.

Ellora (*Eluru* or *Verul*).—Town in the Nizám's Dominions, Deccan. Lat. 20° 2′ N., long. 75° 13′ E. Distant from Aurangábád 13 miles, from Daulatábád 7 miles. Famous for its rock caves and temples. These contain, besides the symbols of Sanskrit mythology and statues of the Hindu deities, several Jain and Buddhist objects of worship.

'The caves,' writes Mr. Burgess, the Archæological Surveyor to the Government of Bombay, 'are excavated in the face of a hill, or rather the scarp of a large plateau, and run nearly north and south for about a mile and a quarter, the scarp at each end of this interval throwing out a horn towards the west. It is where the scarp at the south end begins to turn to the west that the earliest caves—a group of Buddhistic ones—are situated; and in the north horn is the Indra Sabhá or Jain group, the other extremity of the series. The ascent of the *ghát* passes up the south side of Kailás, the third of the Bráhmanical group, and over the roof of the Dás Avatára, the second of them. Sixteen caves lie to the south of Kailás, and nearly as many to the north, but the latter are scattered over a greater distance.

'Most of the caves have got distinguishing names from the local Bráhmans, but it may be quite as convenient, for the sake of reference, to number them from south to north, beginning with the Buddhist caves, of which there are twelve, and passing through the Bráhmanical series, of which seventeen are below the brow of the scarp, and a large number of smaller ones above, and ending with the Jain ones, of which there are five at the extreme north. There are also some cells and a colossal Jain image on the north side of the same spur in which is the Indra Sabhá.'

The chief building, called the Kailás—a perfect Dravidian temple, complete in all its parts—is characterised by Fergusson (*History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, p. 334) as one of the most wonderful and interesting monuments of architectural art in India. 'Its beauty and singularity,' continues Mr. Fergusson, 'always excited the astonishment of travellers, and in consequence it is better known than almost any other structure in that country from the numerous views and sketches of it that have been published. . . . It is not a mere interior chamber cut in the rock, but is a model of a complete temple

such as might have been erected on the plain. In other words, the rock has been cut away externally as well as internally.' This wonderful structure, of which a detailed account is given by Fergusson (*loc. cit.*), measures 138 feet in front; the interior is 247 feet in length by 150 feet in breadth, the height in some places being 100 feet. This temple, as well as the others (which are also described by Fergusson), is said to have been built (about the 8th century) by Rájá Edu of Ellichpur—by whom the town of Ellora was founded—as a thank-offering for a cure effected by the waters of a spring near the place.

'All the sculptures and the whole architectural style of the central temple,' says Mr. Burgess, the Archæological Surveyor of Bombay, 'impress me with the conviction that it is later than the Pápanáth temple at Pattadkal, but probably earlier than the great Sivaite temple of Virúpákshádeva there. It has at one time all been painted in a style befitting its elaborateness of sculpture. This painting has been renewed again and again, perhaps in a continuous succession of debased styles, the latest certainly poor enough. But there are still some bits in the roof of the porch, of two or three successive coatings, that would compare favourably even among many of the Ajantá paintings. The lofty basement of the temple is of itself a remarkable conception, with its row of huge elephants and *sârdulas* or lions, griffins, etc., in every possible attitude, tearing one another or feeding. And then the great hall above, with its sixteen pillars and more pilasters, all carved with different details of sculpture; its balcony porches at the sides, and double pavilions before the front porch; its vestibule to the sanctuary, with large sculptures on each side; and its five shrines round the outside of the principal one and on the same platform, all testify to the attempt made to rival and outdo all previous temples of the kind.

'Dedicated to Siva, it is surrounded with figures also of Vishnu and the whole Puránic pantheon. Its sculptures bear testimony to the prevalence of the eclectic Smartta school. The interior, and parts at least, if not the whole, of the exterior, have been plastered over and painted, and, where this has not very long ago peeled off, has had the effect of preserving the stone inside from the smoke of wandering *jogís'* and travellers' fires, with which it must for ages have been saturated.

'Unlike any of the preceding cave temples, Kailás is a great monolithic temple, isolated from surrounding rock, and carved outside as well as in. It stands in a great court averaging 154 feet wide by 276 long at the level of the base, entirely cut out of the solid rock, and with a scarp 107 feet high at the back. In front of this court a curtain has been left, carved on the outside with the monstrous forms of Siva and Vishnu and their congeners, and with rooms inside it. It is pierced in the centre by an entrance passage with rooms on each side. Passing this, the visitor is met by a large sculpture of Lakshmi over the

lotuses, with her attendant elephants. There are some letters and a date on the leaves of the lotus, on which she sits, but illegible, and probably belonging to the 15th century. On the bases of the pilasters on each side have been inscriptions in characters of the 8th century. As we enter, to right and left is the front portion of the court, which is a few feet lower than the rest, and at the north and south ends of which stand two gigantic elephants,—that on the south much mutilated. Turning again to the east and ascending a few steps, we enter the great court occupied by the temple, whose base measures 164 feet from east to west, by 109 feet where widest from north to south. In front of it, and connected by a bridge, is a *mandapa* for the Nandi, and on each side of this *mandap* stands a pillar or *dvajadand*—"ensign staff"—45 feet high, or with what remains of the *trisula* of Siva on the top, a total height of about 49 feet.'

Ellora was ceded in 1818 by Holkár to the British, who transferred it to the Nizám, in 1822, by the treaty of Haidarábád (Hyderabad).

Ellore (*Eluru*).—*Táluk* of Godávari District, Madras. Area, 729 square miles, containing 250 villages and 36,518 houses; pop. (1871), 136,875, including 128,606 Hindus and 7996 Muhammadans. No other *táluk* of the District contains so many Musalmáns. The arable land amounts to 91,877 acres, paying a revenue of £8213, while other sources (water cess, quit-rent on estates, etc.) raise the total revenue to £20,054. The canals that pass through the *táluk* connect its chief town, ELLORE, with Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry), etc., and besides irrigating the *táluk*, afford a highway for the export of various kinds of grain. Much of the *táluk* is covered with jungle.

Ellore (*Eluru; elu*, ruling—*uru*, town).—Municipal town in Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 42′ 35″ N., long. 81° 9′ 5″ E.; houses, 4253; pop. (1871), 25,487, of whom 20,253 are Hindus, 5046 Muhammadans, and 188 Christians. Situated 255 miles north of Madras, on the Tammaler river. The high-level canal from Vijéshwaram passes through the *táluk*, and joins the Bezwára canal at Ellore, where the waters of the Godávari and Kistna unite. As the headquarters of the *táluk*, it possesses the usual subordinate magisterial and judicial establishments, police station, post office, school, etc.; also the station of the Assistant Collector and an executive engineer. Both Church Missionary and Lutheran missions are established here. The municipal income for 1875-76 was £769; the expenditure, £957; and the incidence of taxation, about 2d. per head of the population. The manufactures of woollen carpets and saltpetre form the chief industries. Historically, Ellore is of importance, as having been the capital of the NORTHERN CIRCARS. Originally portion of the Vengi kingdom, it probably formed part of the Orissa conquests till 1480, when it was occupied by the Muhammadans. Under the supremacy of the Vijáyanagar kingdom,

Ellore became once more Hindu; but early in the 16th century it was captured by Kutab Sháh of Golconda, by whom and his successors it was held against the Rájputs of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) and the Reddis and Kois of the surrounding country, who perpetually harassed the garrison, until the Golconda power was merged in the Subah of the Deccan. In later history, Ellore shared in the vicissitudes common to the other Circars, being in turn possessed by native princes, the French, and finally the British. (*See* NORTHERN CIRCARS.) The ruins of the old fort, built from the Buddhist remains of Vengi, are still visible on the north side of the town; the modern barracks now form the offices of the Subdivisional officer. The heat here is remarkable, even for so hot a District, the thermometer rising to 110° in the shade.

Eminábád.—Municipal town in Gujránwála District, Punjab. Lies in lat. 32° 2′ 15″ N., and long. 74° 18′ E., on the Grand Trunk Road, 9 miles south of Gujránwála town. Pop. (1868), 6711, being 1899 Hindus, 4440 Muhammadans, 88 Síkhs, and 284 'others.' Now a town of small importance, but perhaps the most ancient in the District; contains some fine specimens of Muhammadan architecture. Residence of a leading Kshattriya family, whose members include Jawála Lahái, minister to the Mahárájá of Jammu (Jummoo) (Kashmír), and the late Diwán Hárí Chánd. Trade insignificant. Considerable annual fair in April, 17th to 19th. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £101, or 3⅝d. per head of population (6711) within municipal limits.

Eng-ga-bú.—Revenue circle in Thonkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Towards the east, the country is low and liable to inundation; in the west it is higher, and cultivated with rice. Pop. (1876), 4736, chiefly engaged in fishing; gross revenue, £2600.

Eng-gyeng.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 6 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 791; gross revenue, £112.

English Bázár (or *Angrazábád*).—Chief town, civil station, and administrative headquarters of Maldah District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 0′ 14″ N., long. 88° 11′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 12,859. The town consists in reality of a series of trading villages lining the right bank of the Mahánandá for a considerable distance. Being situated in a mulberry-growing country, it was chosen at an early date as the site of one of the Company's factories. The factory was of considerable importance during the last quarter of the 17th century, and its 'Diaries and Consultations,' from 1685 to 1693 (with breaks), are still preserved in the India Office under the title of 'Maulda and Englesavad.' In 1770, English Bázár was fixed upon for a commercial residency, and retained its importance until the discontinuance of the Company's private trade. An extensive trade in food-grain is carried on here. Gross municipal revenue (1876-77), £533; rate of taxation per head, 9½d.

The largest building is the Collector's house, originally a factory of the East India Company. It is regularly fortified, and within its walls are all the public offices of the District, as well as the private residence of the Collector. A small embankment protects the town from inundations, which are of frequent occurrence in Maldah District.

Engma-myoma.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated just below the Engma Lake. The west and central portions consist of hilly undulating ground; the eastern tracts are fairly level. A narrow belt of rice cultivation runs nearly throughout the whole length of the revenue circle. The main road from Rangoon to the frontier traverses Engma-myoma in a westerly direction.

Eng-rai.—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 6248; gross revenue (derived chiefly from fisheries), £3642. The northern part consists of rice-fields, and the southern portion of open undulating plains, affording excellent pasturage for cattle. There are good fair-weather cart roads in the north.

Eng-rai.—Town in Eng-rai circle, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the right bank of the Daga river, in lat. 17° 10′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 18′ 30″ E. Formerly the headquarters of the extra-Assistant Commissioner. Pop. (1876-77), 1500, engaged in rice cultivation and fishing.

Eng-rai-gyí. — Lake in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; about 3 miles in circumference, with a fairly uniform breadth of 280 to 300 yards, and a depth of from 20 to 45 feet in the centre. It is connected with the Daga branch of the Bassein by a small outlet, which serves to replenish the lake from the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) and to carry off the surplus water. This lake is by some supposed to have been a former portion of the bed of the Daga, by others it is thought to have been caused by a slip of the lower-lying beds, totally independent of fluvial action. It is very valuable as a preserve for fish, and proved an important source of revenue to the Burmese Government, who exacted an annual tax of £780 from the *Paineng* or hereditary chief of the lake, who had sole authority over the villagers employed in the fishery. Each villager had the right of investing his capital in the general working of the fishery, and received a share in the out-turn at the end of the season proportionate to the sum subscribed. The process of dragging the lake is performed by floating capstans worked by hawsers of jungle rope attached to a frame, and occupies three months' working, at the rate of about 45 fathoms each day. The fishing begins with the full moon in June, when the temperature of the water has been reduced by the first showers of the monsoon. The number of fish caught is never below 70,000 to 80,000 of all kinds; the principal belonging for the most part to the genera of Cerca, Cyprinus, Gobio,

Labeo, Cimelodus, Cirrhinus, Cyprinodon, and Silurus. The largest specimens weigh about 56 lbs. each. Crocodiles of all sizes are found in the drag-net, but no casualty has been known to have been caused by them. Some 8000 to 10,000 persons are engaged in the taking and disposal of the fish, of which about 40 tons are annually sold on the spot.

Eng-won.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 9 square miles, of which 3 are under rice; pop. (1876-77), 2730; gross revenue, £628.

Eng-zaya.—Revenue circle in Thonkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3739; gross revenue, £2290. The eastern part consists of extensive plains and swamps. Some of the latter contain fish, and yield a large revenue to the State. The principal products are tobacco, betel leaves, and vegetables.

Ennore (*Ennúr*).—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras. Lat. 13° 13′ 40″ N., long. 80° 21′ 55″ E.; houses, 238; pop. (1871), 1286. It is in reality only a fishing village; but being a favourite resort of Europeans from Madras, it contains several bungalows, built on the strip of land between the sea and the backwater; and, until lately, the oldest club-house in India. Situated 12 miles north of Madras, to which there is some export of the salt manufactured here. In 1769, Haidar Alí encamped near Ennore.

Entalli.—Suburb of Calcutta, Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 33′ 15″ N., long. 88° 24′ 30″ E. Contains an English school, a large native school belonging to the Baptists, and a Roman Catholic convent.

Eran.—Chief village of a tract of the same name in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, 48 miles west of Ságar town. Lat. 24° 5′ 30″ N., long. 78° 15′ E.; pop. (1870), 446; number of houses, 107. Eran is remarkable for its monumental remains, attributed to Rájá Bahrat. The chief of these is a rudely-shaped image of Vishnu in his manifestation as the boar. The animal stands about 10 feet high, with his snout in the air. Successive rows of small figures in short tunics and high caps cover the body; while a band, ornamented with seated figures, encircles the neck. The tip of the projecting tongue supports a human figure erect. The breast bears an inscription, and, as at Oodehghir (Udaigarh?), a young female hangs by the arm from the right tusk. On one side of Vishnu stands a four-armed deity, more than 12 feet high, with girt loins, a high cap, and round his neck and reaching to his feet a thick ornamental cord. On the columns before this statue are seen figures weaving the sacred thread, with twisted snakes, elephants, nude female figures, seated Buddhas, faces of satyrs, and other devices. Besides these and other remains, there are three figures of crouching lions; and in front of them, a pillar, and a small temple

half buried in the soil. The pillar has a broad base, for about 15 feet the shaft is square, and for about 10 feet more round. The bell capital occupies 2 feet, and sustains a pedestal about 3 feet high, on which stands a small double-fronted four-armed statue. From the inscription on this column the date of Buddha Gupta, of the great Gupta line of Magadha, has been established.

Erandol.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Khandesh District, Bombay; situated on the Anjáni river, 40 miles east of Dhuliá. Lat. 20° 56′ N., long. 75° 20′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 11,071; municipal revenue (1874-75), £24; rate of taxation, ½d. per head of population (10,846) within municipal limits. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary. Erandol is connected by made roads with the towns of Dhuliá, Dharangáon (8 miles north-west), and the railway station of Mahásawar (8 miles south-east). It is a place of some antiquity, and was formerly celebrated for its manufacture of coarse native paper, an industry which still survives to a limited extent. There is a considerable local trade in cotton, indigo, and grain; the chief market being Jalgáon, a station 8 miles north-east.

Ernád (*Eránádu*).—*Táluk* in Malabar District, Madras. Houses, 59,139. Pop. (1871), 287,936—being 146,468 Hindus, all Sivaites except 264; 141,016 Muhammadans, being 119,944 Sunnis and 21,072 Shiás; 452 Christians.

Ernakolam (*Yernacoulam*).—Town in Cochin State, Madras; situated on the backwater 2 miles east of, and opposite to, Cochin. Lat. 9° 58′ 55″ N., long. 76° 19′ 21″ E.; houses, 2571; pop. (1871), 14,038. The chief members of the local Government reside here; and the town also contains the judicial courts, several public offices, and a grand Darbár palace, where the British Resident pays his state visits to the Rájá of Cochin. Some of the roads are metalled, and there are two churches. The suburb of Anjikamal (so called in memory of five chiefs who at a distant period of history shared the surrounding country) contains a large and regularly built market, and has a considerable trade, chiefly in the hands of the Jews and Konkanis.

Erniál.—Town in the district of the same name, Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 8° 12′ 12″ N., long. 77° 21′ 31″ E.; pop. (1871), 4878; houses, 1085. As the headquarters of the Subdivision, it possesses the usual subordinate native establishments. The London Missionary Society have a school here.

Erode (*Iródu*).—*Táluk* of Coimbatore District, Madras. Watered by the Káveri (Cauvery) and Bhaváni rivers, with their tributaries, the Amrávati and Moriar. From Vangal on the Amrávati, a few miles below Karúr, the teak timber cut on the Anamalái Hills is floated down the Káveri, which the Amrávati joins near the same spot. The timber is carried thence to Trichinopoli, or to one of the mouths of the

same river at Porto Novo. The high road from Coimbatore to Trichinopoli crosses the Amrávati at Karúr. The Moriar rises in the Nílgiris, and falls into the Bhaváni near Danaikenkotta.

Erode (*Iródu*).—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Houses, 2159; pop. (1871), 10,201, of whom 9581 are Hindus, chiefly Vallálas, and only 6 per cent. Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 11° 20′ 29″ N., and long. 77° 46′ 3″ E., on the Káveri (Cauvery) river, at the extreme east of the District, 243 miles by rail from Madras, 85 from Trichinopoli, 70 from Coimbatore, and 37 from Salem. Being the headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name, it possesses the usual subordinate judicial establishments, police station, school, telegraph and post office, and rest-house for European soldiers. It is now also the headquarters of the District Sub-Collector, who, until 1874, was stationed at Kangayam. In the time of Haidar Alí, Erode contained 3000 houses; but in consequence of successive Marhattá, Mysore, and British invasions, the town became almost utterly deserted and ruined. As soon, however, as peace was signed, the people returned to a place with so many advantages in position and fertility; and within a year it had 400 houses, and a population of over 2000. The garrison was withdrawn in 1807, and the ruined fort levelled, as a relief work during the famine of 1877. The space enclosed within the ramparts had been long before occupied by cotton-presses and saltpetre warehouses. The trade of Erode consists chiefly in the export of cotton, saltpetre, and rice; it is an important railway entrepôt. Besides the Great Trunk Road from Madras, which passes through Erode, the main lines to Karúr, Perindorai, and Mysore—one *viâ* the Hassanúr Ghát, the other *viâ* the Burghur Ghát—radiate from it, serving as feeders to the railway, which has here a station at the junction of the Madras, South-Western, and Southern India lines. Exclusive of the junction traffic, the returns for 1875 show a traffic of 352,633 passengers, and 26,035 tons of goods despatched and 16,103 tons unloaded. About 1½ miles east of the town a bridge of 22 arches crosses the Káveri (Cauvery), 1536 feet in length, constructed at a cost of £40,875. The town is well built, and amongst other public edifices has a fine court-house, erected at a cost of £3000. Historically, Erode is a place of considerable interest. Until 1667 it formed part of the Madura kingdom, but in that year fell to Dad Deo, Rájá of Mysore. In 1768, it was taken and lost by the British; and in 1790, it was finally recaptured.

Etah.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 19′ 42″ and 28° 1′ 39″ N. lat., and 78° 27′ 26″ and 79° 19′ 23″ E. long. Area, 1512 square miles; population in 1872, 703,527. Etah is the northernmost District of the Agra Division. It is bounded on the north by the river Ganges, on the west by Agra and Alígarh, on the south by Máinpuri, and on the

east by Farrukhábád. The administrative headquarters are at the town of ETAH, but KASGANJ is the chief centre of population and commerce.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Etah lies on the eastern edge of the middle Doáb, where the elevated plateau composing that fertile tract dips into the valley of the Ganges. From the banks of the great river to the terraces which form the escarpment of the upland plain stretches a belt of level land known as the *tarái*, bounded on the west by the Búrh Gangá, or ancient bed of the river. The abandoned channel is still marked by a line of swamps and hollows, which receive the surface drainage of the neighbouring fields. The whole *tarái*, lying as it does between the former and the present stream of the river, is covered with a rich alluvial deposit, and abundantly supplied with water, so that artificial irrigation is unnecessary. But in its widest portion, the crust of alluvial matter becomes thinner, and sandy undulating downs begin to crop up. Above the marshy bed of the Búrh Gangá rises the old high bank of the ancient channel, which leads at once to the central Doáb plateau. This upland tract exhibits the same natural characteristics in Etah as elsewhere, being for the most part a level plain, interspersed with hillocks of yellow sand and patches of rich loam, which latter are generally chosen as village sites; but it is neither so fertile nor so highly cultivated as in the Meerut (Mírath) Division to the north, owing to the want of irrigation. The Lower Ganges Canal, however, now in course of construction, will shortly supply all the needs of Etah; and the District may be expected before long to rival the fertility of Alígarh and Bulandshahr. The central plateau is bounded to the west by the deep gorge of the KALI NADI, a tributary of the Ganges, which provides Etah with a main drainage channel, and, occasionally overflowing its banks after heavy rain, fertilises the fallow land with a rich layer of fine silt and decaying vegetable matter. The angle to the south-west of the Káli is by far the most fruitful portion of the District. Naturally composed of a strong and rich clay, it is intersected by the Cawnpore and Etáwah branches of the Ganges Canal, which supply water to the fields by 138 miles of distributary streams. It is much cut up, however, by wide stretches of *usar* plain, which are absolutely barren of all vegetation. Indeed, the whole District is distinguished for its bare and treeless appearance. The larger villages and towns are surrounded with pleasant groves, but there are few woods of any extent, and very little jungle land. Though about one-fifth of the area is returned as waste, only a small fraction of this is cultivable, and that will doubtless be reclaimed as soon as the irrigation schemes now on foot are completed. The remainder consists either of dry saline *usár* plain or barren flats of *bhúr* waste. As a whole, while Etah cannot boast of such advantages as the Districts which lie above it in the Doáb,

it is more flourishing than the majority of its neighbours to the south and west.

History.—Tradition points to the valley of the Káli as the seat of populous cities in mythical times; and the accounts of the Buddhist pilgrims from China, in the 5th and 7th centuries, bear out to some extent the legendary statements. The District was at that time rich in temples and monasteries, as befitted a place which had been honoured by the personal presence of Buddha, many incidents in whose life are connected with the ruined mounds of ATRANJI. From the 6th to the 10th century, Etah appears to have been held by Ahírs and Bhars, and then to have been occupied by the Rájputs, during the course of their great immigration eastwards. When Mahmúd of Ghazní marched against the kingdom of Kanauj in 1017, he must have taken Etah on his route; and the District must again have been traversed nearly two centuries later by the army of the second great Musalmán conqueror, Muhammad Ghori, on its way to the final battle with the Rahtor Rájá, Jái Chánd, in the Jumna ravines of Agra. From that time forward, Etah remained a dependency of the Musalmán rulers at Kanauj or Koil, and never again fell into the hands of a Hindu prince. But the District was then a wild expanse of *dhák* forest, studded with the mud forts of robber chieftains and the villages of a lawless peasantry, and such it remained until the introduction of British rule. Patiáli, the principal town, lying on the old channel of the Ganges, was infested by robber hordes whose misdeeds roused the indignation of Sultán Balban, about the year 1270. The Sultán proceeded in person to Patiáli, and opened the roads to Hindustán for merchants and caravans by placing strong garrisons in the fortresses of the banditti, so that 'Musalmáns and guardians of the way took the place of highway robbers.' The principal Muhammadan inhabitants still trace the origin of their families to this period. During the frequent Musalmán invasions of the 15th century, Etah was constantly exposed to the ravages of both parties, as it lay on the direct route to the great cities on the Ganges. Akbar included it in his *sarkárs* of Kanauj, Koil, and Budáun, and used it as an outpost against the refractory Hindus of Máinpuri. At the end of the last century, Etah passed into the hands of the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, and formed a portion of the territory ceded to the British in 1801-2. It was then distributed among the adjoining Districts of ETAWAH, FARRUKHABAD, ALIGARH, and MORADABAD. The outlying *parganás* which compose the present District were from the first so remote from the central authority, that it was found necessary in 1811 to place a subordinate European officer at Patiáli, with criminal jurisdiction over the surrounding country. After many changes of an intricate sort, the condition of the *parganás* around Etah attracted serious consideration in 1845. The Ahírs and Aheriyas had commenced a system of

organized plunder, and *dakáitis* (gang-robberies), planned by an outlaw from the Jumna ravines of Máinpuri, became so frequent as to call for more efficient police arrangements. Much of the country was still covered with *dhák* jungle, and studded with mud forts, moated and fenced on every side. The landowners even considered it a mark of disrespect to call for the revenue without some show of force to back up their demand. Accordingly, a Deputy Collector and Joint Magistrate was stationed at Patiáli in 1845; and in 1856 the headquarters were transferred to a more accessible position at Etah, a village on the Grand Trunk Road, from which the District takes its name. The succeeding year saw the outbreak at Meerut (Mírath), which quickly developed into the Mutiny of 1857. As soon as the troops garrisoned at Etah received intelligence of the revolt at Alígarh, the whole body left the station without any disturbance. As there was no place of strength in the town, and no force with which to defend it, the Magistrate found it necessary to withdraw until the mutineers from Máinpuri and Etáwah had passed through. After a gallant but unsuccessful attempt to hold Kásganj, the whole District was abandoned on the 7th of June, and the officers reached Agra in safety. Damar Sinh, Rájá of Etah, then set himself up as an independent ruler in the south of the District. As usual, however, rival claimants appeared in various quarters; and towards the end of July, the rebel Nawáb of Farrukhábád took practical possession for some months. On the approach of General Greathed's column, the rebels retired for a while, and Mr. Cocks was appointed special commissioner for Etah and Alígarh. The force at his disposal, however, was quite insufficient to restore order, and the rebels still continued to hold Kásganj. It was not till the 15th of December that Colonel Seaton's column attacked the rebels at Gangíri, and, after totally routing them, occupied Kásganj. By the middle of 1858 order was completely restored, and the peace of the District has not since been disturbed.

Population.—The Census of 1865 was the first in which Etah was recorded as a separate District; but by selecting from the adjoining Districts the statistics for those *parganás* which at present compose it, we find the population to have been 446,275 in 1848, and 616,856 in 1853. At the enumeration of 1865, Etah was accredited with a total of 614,351 inhabitants. The last Census, that of 1872, showed a population of 703,527 persons, or 89,176 more than in 1865; number of villages, 2620; number of houses, 136,864. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 465; villages per square mile, 1·7; houses per square mile, 90; persons per village, 269; persons per house, 5·1. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 382,746; females, 320,739: percentage of males in total population, 54·4. The small proportion of females suggests a

suspicion of infanticide, which has long been a common practice amongst the Rájputs, and which recent investigations have proved to be even more rife amongst the Ahírs. A large number of villages belonging to both these castes were placed on the 'proclaimed list' under the Infanticide Act in 1874. Classified according to age, there were, children —males, 157,122; females, 127,428; total, 284,550: percentage of children, 40·44. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Etah is one of the most thoroughly Hindu Districts in the Doáb, showing a total Musalmán population of only 67,278 by the side of 636,149 Hindus. The percentage of Hindus amounts to 90·4, and that of Muhammadans to 9·6. The number of Christians is 58. Of the four great classes into which the Hindus are conventionally divided, the Bráhmans number 60,691 persons. They own a large portion of the District as *zamíndárs*, and most of them belong to the ancient Kanaujiya subdivision. The Rájputs are exceptionally numerous in Etah, being returned at 57,025. They are by far the most important landowning class in the District, and include many of the great territorial families. The Banias or trading castes are represented by only 13,056 persons; but they are a wealthy mercantile body, and own a considerable proportion of the land. The great mass of the population (505,383) is here, as elsewhere, included in the 'other castes' of the Census returns. The Chamárs are their most numerous tribe, forming the landless labouring class throughout the whole Doáb, where they have only just emerged under British rule from a state of rural serfdom. Next come the Ahírs, once the dominant race, and still the possessors of 82 villages. The Káyasths are few in number, but rich in land; while the Lodhás and Káchhís are large tribes, but of small social importance. The Musalmáns still retain much of their landed possessions. About two-thirds of the adult male population are dependent upon the soil for their support, the District being strictly agricultural. In 1872, there were 8 towns with a population exceeding 5000 persons, viz. ETAH, 8044; MAREHRA, 9214; SORON, 11,182; SAHAWAR, 5156; SAKIT, 5415; DUNDWARAGANJ, 5414; ALIGANJ, 7912; and KASGANJ, 15,764. The language in ordinary use is Hindí.

Agriculture.—The principal crops grown in the District are wheat and other cereals, pulses and millets, cotton, sugar-cane, indigo, and poppy; the harvests are the usual *kharíf* and *rabí*, the former being the more important of the two. In 1872, the area occupied by the principal crops was distributed as follows:—Wheat, 134,306 acres; barley, 92,154 acres; indigo, 90,055 acres; cotton, 56,519 acres; sugar-cane, 16,992 acres. Total cultivated area, 619,329 acres. The average out-turn of an acre of wheat is 21 *maunds*, or nearly 16 cwts., valued at £3, 6s. The employment of manure is almost universal, though a single application is expected to suffice for two successive harvests. As a rule, only

one crop a year is raised on each plot, but cotton is often succeeded by tobacco or vegetables, and indigo by wheat or barley. Rotation of crops is rapidly supplanting the old wasteful habit of leaving the lands to lie fallow after exhausting products have been grown. Irrigation is extensively practised from wells and canals, though it has not kept pace with the other agricultural improvements. The completion of the Lower Ganges Canal, however, will doubtless effect an immense change in this respect. The area under sugar-cane has decreased in recent years, except where an abundant water supply can be obtained from the canals which intersect the south-western corner of the District; but all the other export staples have been grown in larger quantities, while no corresponding diminution has taken place in the area devoted to food-stuffs. The cultivators are in comfortable circumstances, less wealthy than their neighbours in the Meerut Division, but removed far above the squalid poverty of Bundelkhand. Temples and mosques are rare in Etah, a mound of earth being often the only place of worship in a village; while in Alígarh, beyond the northern boundary, handsome buildings for religious purposes are to be seen on every side. Cultivators with rights of occupancy hold 64 per cent. of the cultivated area, and tenants-at-will 21 per cent., while the remaining 15 per cent. is occupied by small proprietors, who farm their own land. Rents are unusually low, chiefly owing to the jealous care with which Government has guarded the rights of hereditary tenants, and resisted all attempts at illegal enhancement. The average rates vary from 2s. 9d. to 7s. 1d. per acre. Wages ruled as follows in 1872:—Carpenters, masons, and blacksmiths, 6d. per diem; tailors, 4½d. per diem; coolies, water-carriers, etc., 3d. per diem. Agricultural labourers are generally paid in kind; when paid in cash, men get 3d., women 1½d., and children ⅜d. per diem. Prices have risen steadily during the last thirty years. The average of ten years, ending in 1870, shows the following rates at Kásganj:— Wheat or grain, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; barley or *joár*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; *bájra*, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 1¾d. per cwt. Prices at Etah town ruled about 1 *ser* per rupee dearer than these quotations.

Natural Calamities.—Etah suffers from the ravages of locusts, white ants, and other destructive insects; and the cereal crops are liable to several kinds of blight. Floods also occasionally occur in the low-lying valley of the Ganges, and overwhelm the fertile soil with ridges of barren shingle. But the great enemy of Etah, as of all the Doáb, is drought, which has frequently produced severe famines. The last was that of 1860-61, known among the peasantry by the graphic title of the 'Seven-*ser* famine,' in which rice sold at the rate of 7 *sers* per rupee, or 7 lbs. for a shilling. The people were forced to live upon wild fruits and vegetables, and even to extract food from grass seeds. The drought

of 1868-69, however, was felt in Etah much less severely than in neighbouring Districts. Though both harvests were partial failures, the scarcity which ensued did not rise to the intensity of famine, and the highest quotation for wheat was only 13 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 7¼d. per cwt. Famine rates are reached in this District when wheat sells at less than 12 *sers* per rupee, or more than 9s. 4d. per cwt. But it is hoped that the completion of the Lower Ganges Canal will secure the District in future from the extremity of famine.

Commerce, Trade, etc.—Etah has a considerable export trade in agricultural produce. In an average season the surplus for exportation is estimated to amount to the following quantities:—Rice, 100,000 *maunds*, or 73,469 cwts.; cleaned cotton, 46,909 *maunds*, or 34,463 cwts.; uncleaned cotton, 140,727 *maunds*, or 103,391 cwts.; wheat and barley, 1,831,725 *maunds*, or 1,345,757 cwts., besides a large quantity of pulses and millets. The only important manufacture is that of indigo, which is carried on in about 200 factories, some of them under European management. Sugar is refined to a large extent in the northern part of the District; and the *parganás* lying on the banks of the Ganges and the Búrh Gangá prepare salt from the saline earth which is common throughout the District. Ropes and coarse sacking are also made from the hemp of the country, and exported as far as Calcutta. Before the Mutiny, fire-arms of finished workmanship and elaborately inlaid with silver were manufactured in the District; but since the Disarming Act, this trade has greatly declined. A religious fair is held once a year at Soron, when the Hindus bathe in the purifying waters of the Búrh Gangá, and lay in their annual stock of clothing and household utensils. Another fair is held at Kakora in Budáun District, just opposite the village of Kádirganj in Etah; and although the traders congregate chiefly on the Budáun bank, many pilgrims, whose object is purely religious, bathe and remain at Kádirganj. No railway passes through the District, but a good metalled road connects the headquarters at Etah with the Shikohábád station on the East Indian line, 35 miles distant. There are 101 miles of first-class, 113 miles of second-class, and 327 miles of third-class roads. The last class are being raised and bridged in portions from year to year. The Ganges is navigable throughout the District, and the exports of Kásganj and Dundwáraganj are shipped at the *gháts* of the same name. Some small traffic also passes by the Cawnpore branch of the canal. In 1876, there was but one printing-press in the District, owned by a native at Etah, provided both with Nágari and Persian type.

Administration.—In 1860-61, the total revenue of the District from all sources amounted to £88,867, of which £73,743 was derived from the land tax; while the total expenditure amounted to £23,680, or hardly more than one-fourth of the revenue. In 1870-71, the total

receipts had increased to £119,399, while the land tax had remained almost stationary at £78,852. The increase was mainly due to canal collections, and to a large rise in the proceeds of local cesses, the income tax, and the items of stamps and octroi. At the same time, the expenditure had risen to £37,272, or nearly one-third of the revenue. This increase was due to the need for more active administration, and was chiefly set down to such items as salaries of officials, education, post office, canals, medical staff, and local cesses. In 1875, the District was administered by 3 covenanted civilians, and contained 8 magisterial, 2 civil, and 7 revenue courts. The regular police amounted, in 1874, to 528 men of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £6863, chiefly from provincial funds. This force was supplemented by 1321 village watchmen (*chaukidárs*) and 70 road patrols, for whose maintenance a sum of £4797 was expended from the local treasury. The whole machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 1919 officers and men, or 1 policeman to every 0·78 square mile and every 366 inhabitants; and the total cost of their maintenance was £11,660, or about 3⅞d. per head of the population. In the same year, 1045 persons were convicted of all offences, great or small, in Etah; the proportion of convictions to the whole population being 1 to every 673 persons. The District has but one jail, the average daily number of prisoners in which was 117 in 1860, and 210 in 1870; the proportion to the total population was 0·019 and 0·034 per cent. respectively. The cost per inmate in the latter year was £4, 19s. 7⅝d., and the average earnings of each prisoner were 9s. 8d. Education is making steady advances in Etah; it is gaining rapidly in the popular estimation, and some of the village schools are models of excellence. In 1870-71, the District contained 166 schools, with a total of 3953 pupils; while the sum expended upon education amounted to £2052. By 1874-75, the number of schools had risen to 184, the roll of pupils to 4979, and the sum expended on their instruction to £2298. The District is divided into 3 *tahsíls* and 14 *parganás*, with an aggregate, in 1870, of 1407 estates, held by 13,724 registered proprietors or coparceners; the average revenue paid by each estate was £55, 16s. 2⅝d., and by each proprietor, £5, 14s. 5¼d. The District contains 5 municipalities — Kásganj, Etah, Soron, Marehra, and Alíganj. In 1875-76, their joint income amounted to £4878, and their expenditure to £4043; average incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 3⅝d. per head of population.

Sanitary Aspects.—The climate of Etah is dry and healthy, but sand and dust storms are of almost daily occurrence in the hot season. During the cooler months the air is cold and bracing, and fires are often found necessary, especially in the winter rains. The total rainfall was 44·7 inches in 1867-68, 12·9 inches in 1868-69 (a year of scarcity),

27·3 inches in 1869-70, and 34·1 inches in 1870-71. The principal diseases are fever and small-pox, but cholera sometimes visits Etah with severity. The reported death-rate was 22 per 1000 in 1872, 24·2 per 1000 in 1873, and 22·1 per 1000 in 1874. In the latter year, the total number of deaths recorded was 15,593, of which as many as 12,706 were due to fever alone. There are 5 charitable dispensaries in the District, which afforded assistance in 1873-74 to 17,636 out-door and 695 in-door patients.

Etah.—South-western *tahsíl* of Etah District, North-Western Provinces, lying to the west of the Káli Nadi, and watered by three branches of the Lower Ganges Canal. Area, 491 square miles, of which 276 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 246,552; land revenue, £32,435; total Government revenue, £35,679; rental paid by cultivators, £57,231; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 0¾d.

Etah.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 8044, being 5884 Hindus, 2150 Muhammadans, and 10 Christians. Situated in lat. 27° 33′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 42′ 25″ E., on the Grand Trunk Road, 9 miles west of the Káli Nadi. Rather an overgrown village than a town, deriving its whole importance from the presence of the civil station, removed hither from Patiáli in 1856, on account of the superior accessibility of the site. The principal market-place, Mayneganj, perpetuates the name of Mr. F. O. Mayne, C.B., late Collector of the District. Westward lies the new town of Etah, containing the *tahsíli* school, while to the east Rájá Dílsukh Rái's temple towers over the other buildings to an extraordinary height. Large tank with handsome flight of steps, municipal hall, court-house, *tahsíli* office, dispensary. The site is low, and was formerly subject to floods; but a cutting to the Isan Nadi, effected by Mr. Mayne, has remedied this evil. Founded about 500 years since by Sangrám Sinh, a Chauhán Thákur, whose mud fort still exists to the north of the town. His descendants occupied the surrounding territory, with the title of Rájá, till the Mutiny, when Rájá Damar Sinh rebelled, and lost his property, together with the family honours. (*See* ETAH DISTRICT.) Chief trade—the scarlet *ál* dye, indigo-seed, cotton, and sugar. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1345 (from taxes, £844), or 2s. 1⅛d. per head of population (8044) within municipal limits.

Etáwah.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 21′ 8″ and 27° 0′ 25″ N. lat., and between 78° 47′ 20″ and 79° 47′ 20″ E. long. Area (1878), 1691 square miles; population (1872), 668,641 persons. Etáwah is a District of the Agra Division. It is bounded on the north by Máinpuri and Farrukhábád; on the west by the Jumna (Jamuná) river, and Agra District, the

Chambal Kuári Nadi, and the Native State of Gwalior; on the south by the Jumna; and on the east by Cawnpore. The administrative headquarters are at the town of Etawah, which is the only place of importance in the District.

Physical Aspects. — The District of Etáwah is a purely artificial division for administrative purposes, stretching from the level plain of the Doáb, across the valley of the Jumna (Jamuná), to the gorges and ravines of the Chambal, which form the last outliers of the Vindhyán range. It exhibits an unusual variety of scenery. The north-eastern portion of the District, known as the *Pachár*, which is separated from the remainder by the deep and fissured bed of the river Sengár, belongs in its physical features to the great upland plateau of the Doáb. This tract consists of a fertile loam, occasionally interrupted by barren *usár* plains, and interspersed with saucer-like depressions of clay, whose centre is occupied by marshes or shallow lakes. It is well watered, both by the streams which take their rise from these swampy hollows, and by the great artificial canals which intersect and fertilize the Upper and Central Doáb. The Cawnpore branch canal, though it does not enter the District, runs close to its borders, and sends off distributaries which supply the extreme eastern angle; the Etáwah branch traverses the centre of the plateau; while the Lower Ganges Canal, now in course of construction, will pass between the two older works, and irrigate the intervening country. The whole *Pachár* is rich and fertile, and it is clothed in the season with a green expanse of wheat and sugar-cane. On the opposite bank of the Sengár lies another stretch of uplands, which reaches almost to the bed of the Jumna. This tract is not unlike the *Pachár* in its natural characteristics; but as it has no canal system to develop its resources, while water is only found at a great depth in wells, cotton and inferior food grains here replace the crops for which abundant irrigation is necessary. The Bhognipur branch of the canal, however, will pass through the very heart of this region, whose native fertility is even now considerable. The uplands descend into the Jumna valley through a wild terraced slope, broken by ravines, and covered with thorny brushwood. Upon its sides the villages are scanty, and lie concealed in the remotest nooks, while cultivation is difficult and unprofitable. Below, the river bank is sometimes fringed by a strip of rich alluvial deposit; but in other places, the Jumna sweeps close round the bold bluffs which terminate the upland terraces. Its bank should form the natural boundary of the District, but a narrow strip of British territory lies along its opposite side, cut off from the Native State of Gwalior by the rapid torrents of the Chambal and the Kuári Nadi. This outlying region has been attached to Etáwah for administrative purposes. A little alluvial soil is found here and there on small plots of tableland in the trans-

Jumna tract; but the greater part consists of a perfect labyrinth of gorges, amongst whose recesses may be found some of the wildest and most romantic scenery in Upper India. From the fortress-crowned cliff of Bhareh the eye wanders over a tangled mass of rock and valley, threaded by eddying rivers, overgrown with leafy jungle of acacia or oleander, and studded on every prominent bluff with the ruined stronghold of some ancient robber chief. The rugged and picturesque nature of this intricate range, known as the Pánchnada, or Country of Five Rivers, contrasts strangely with the cultivated and monotonous level of the Doáb to the east.

History.—The physical features of Etáwah, which rendered it practically inaccessible to invaders in early times, marked it out for many ages as a secure retreat for the lawless and turbulent. Numerous mounds still show the ancient sites of prehistoric cities throughout the District, which long formed a main stronghold of the Meos, the Ishmaelites of the Upper Doáb. In their hands it doubtless remained until after the earliest Muhammadan invasions, as none of the tribes now inhabiting its borders has any traditions which stretch back beyond the 12th century of our era. Etáwah was probably traversed both by Mahmúd of Ghazní and by Kutab-ud-dín, on their successful expeditions against the native dynasties; but the memorials of these events are indistinct and uncertain on all local details. It is clear, however, that the Hindus of Etáwah succeeded on the whole in maintaining their independence against the Musalmán aggressors; for while the neighbouring Districts have a number of wealthy and influential Muhammadan colonies, only a thin sprinkling of Shaikhs or Sayyids can be found amongst the territorial families of Etáwah. The Rájputs seem to have occupied the District in the course of their great eastward migration during the 12th century, and they were shortly followed by the Kanaujiya Bráhmans, whose descendants still form the most important element of the land-owning community. Musalmán histories teem with notices of raids conducted with varying success by the Sayyid generals against the 'accursed infidels' of Etáwah. The Hindu chiefs were generally able to defend their country from the invaders, though they made peace after each raid by the payment of a precarious tribute. Early in the 16th century, Bábar conquered the District, together with the rest of the Doáb; and it remained in the power of the Mughals until the expulsion of Humáyun. His Afghán rival, Sher Sháh, saw that no order could be established without a thorough system of internal communications; and he opened up the country with roads and watch-houses, besides stationing 12,000 horsemen in Hathkáut, who dealt out such rude but prompt measures of justice as suited the circumstances of the place and the people. His reforms laid the foundation for the imperial organization of the Mughal dynasty. Akbar included Etáwah

in his *sarkárs* of Agra, Kanauj, Kálpi, and Irich. But even that great administrator failed thoroughly to incorporate Etáwah with the dominions of the Delhi court. Neither as proselytizers nor as settlers have the Musalmáns impressed their mark so deeply here as in other Districts of the Doáb. During the decline of the Mughal power, Etáwah fell at first into the grasping hands of the Marhattás. The battle of Pánipat dispossessed them for a while, and the District became an appanage of the Ját garrison at Agra. In 1770, the Marhattás returned, and for three years they occupied the Doáb afresh. But when, in 1773, Najaf Khán drove the intruders southward, the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh crossed the Ganges, and laid claim to his share of the spoil. During the anarchic struggle which closed the century, Etáwah fell sometimes into the hands of the Marhattás and sometimes into those of the Wazír; but at last the power of Oudh became firmly established, and was not questioned until the cession to the East India Company in 1801. Even after the British took possession, many of the District Chiefs maintained a position of independence, or at least of insubordination; and it was some time before the revenue officers ventured to approach them with a demand for the Government dues. Gradually, however, the turbulent landowners were reduced to obedience, and industrial organization took the place of the old predatory *régime*. The murderous practice of *thaggi* (*thuggee*) had been common before the cession, but was firmly repressed by the new power. In spite of a devastating famine in 1837, which revolutionized the proprietary system by dismembering the great *tálukas* or fiscal farms, the District steadily improved for many years, under the influence of settled government. The opening of the Ganges Canal, with its daily increasing branches, diffused fertility through a wide portion of the area; and every class of the community was advancing in material prosperity, while the opening of schools and public libraries gave an earnest of future advancement. The Mutiny of 1857 interrupted for some months this progress. News of the outbreak at Meerut (Mírath) reached Etáwah two days after its occurrence. Within the week, a small body of mutineers passed through the District, and fired upon the authorities, upon which they were surrounded and cut down. Shortly after, another body occupied Jaswantnagar, and, although a gallant attack was made upon them by the local officials, they succeeded in holding the town. On the 22d of May, it was thought desirable to withdraw from Etáwah station, but the troops mutinied on their march, and it was with difficulty that the officers and ladies reached Barhpura. There they were joined by the 1st Gwalior Regiment, which, however, itself proved insubordinate upon the 17th of June. It then became necessary entirely to abandon the District and retire to Agra. The Jhánsi mutineers immediately occupied Etáwah, and soon passed on to Máin-

puri. Meanwhile, many of the native officials proved themselves steady friends of order, and communicated whenever it was possible with the Magistrate in Agra. Bands of rebels from different quarters passed through between July and December, until on Christmas-day Brigadier Walpole's column re-entered the District. Etáwah station was recovered on the 6th January 1858; but the rebels still held the Shergarh *ghát*, on the main road to Bundelkhand, and the whole south-west of the District remained in their hands. During the early months of 1858, several endeavours were made to dislodge them step by step, but the local force was not sufficient to allow of any extensive operations. Indeed, it was only by very slow degrees that order was restored; and as late as the 7th of December a body of plunderers from Oudh, under Firoz Sháh, entered the District, burning and killing indiscriminately wherever they went. They were attacked and defeated at Harchandpur, and by the end of 1858 tranquillity was completely restored. Throughout the whole of this trying period, the loyalty exhibited by the people of Etáwah themselves was very noticeable. Though mutineers were constantly marching through the District, almost all the native officials remained faithful to the cause of order; and many continued to guard the treasure, and even to collect revenue, in the midst of anarchy and rebellion. The principal *zamíndárs* also were loyal almost to a man.

Population.—The Census of 1865 was the first enumeration of the people in which the area corresponded with that of the present time sufficiently for purposes of comparison. It revealed a total population of 627,378, or 384 to the square mile. The Census of 1872 showed an increase to the number of 668,641 persons, or 395 to the square mile. The District then contained 3529 villages, giving an average of 2 villages to each square mile, and 189 inhabitants to each village. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 369,928; females, 298,653: proportion of males, 55·3 per cent. of the total population. These figures show the usual preponderance of males, which must doubtless be to a great extent accounted for by the former prevalence of infanticide. There is reason to fear that this practice still lingers amongst the people. Classified according to age, there were (with the like exception), under 15 years of age—males, 139,606; females, 112,459; total, 252,065, or 37·70 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, Etáwah is one of the Districts where the faith of Islám has never succeeded in obtaining any large body of followers. The Census of 1872 showed 631,923 Hindus, and only 36,571 Musalmáns, the percentages being 94·5 and 5·5 respectively, or as many as 19 Hindus to every Muhammadan. There were also 61 Europeans and Eurasians, and 86 Native Christians. The proportions which the various castes and tribes bear

to one another are the same as those prevalent throughout most of the Doáb. Of the 4 great Hindu divisions, the Bráhmans numbered 93,082 persons, minutely subdivided into the usual stocks and clans. They hold 685 villages in the richest portions of the District, and are the most important element of the population, both from their social position and their newly-acquired landed estates. The Rájputs are given at 58,358, inhabiting 507 villages. They form the old territorial aristocracy of Etáwah, who are being gradually ousted from their possessions by Bráhman usurers and Bania traders. The last-named class is returned at 32,693 persons, holding 77 villages. The 'other castes' of the Census include the great body of the population, amounting in the aggregate to 452,790 persons. The Chamárs (96,923) head the list; they are almost without exception agricultural labourers, whom the benevolent efforts of British rule have only now succeeded in raising from a condition of abject serfdom. Ahírs come next in numerical order, with 75,035, and this tribe has some landed property of small value. The Káyasths number only 8492 persons, but they possess 150 villages, and are the wealthiest landholding community, in proportion to their numbers, in Etáwah. The Kshattriyas or Khatris amount to no more than 278 persons, but they are *zamíndárs* in 24 villages, and are of great commercial importance. The other leading tribes are the Káchhis (48,160), Lodhás (34,795), Gadariás (21,926), and Kolís (20,391). The Musalmáns are for the most part Shaikhs or Patháns, and are to be found chiefly in the larger towns; they hold 48 villages in the District. The population is still essentially agricultural, and there is little movement towards urban life. In 1872, only 4 towns had a population exceeding 5000 — namely, ETAWAH (30,549), PHAPHUND (6536), AURAIYA (6459), and JASWANTNAGAR (5310).

Agriculture.—A large portion of the area of Etáwah, especially in the trans-Jumna region, is covered with jungle or rendered barren by *usár* plains. But the District contains 547,619 acres of cultivated land, most of which has reached a high degree of tillage. At the date of the last fiscal settlement (1869-72), the area under each crop for the two harvests was found to be as follows:—*Rabí*, or spring crops—wheat, 54,776 acres; *bejar*, or wheat mixed with gram or barley, 137,458 acres; barley, 13,373 acres; gram, 21,830 acres; together with poppies, vegetables, and other crops making up a grand total of 247,245 acres: *Kharíf*, or rain crops—sugar-cane, 22,484 acres; cotton, 77,007 acres; *bájra*, 78,347 acres; *joár*, 102,845 acres; indigo, 7344 acres; together with rice, Indian corn, and other crops, making up a grand total of 300,371 acres. The average out-turn of wheat on good soil is 21 *maunds* or about 15 cwts. per acre, valued at £4, 18s., inclusive of the straw and the crops grown amongst it; the out-turn of cotton is 7 *maunds* or 5

cwts. per acre, valued at £3. The system of cultivation is the same as that prevalent in the Doáb generally. Manure is applied every second year, and rotation of crops is practised to a slight extent. Irrigation is widely employed, and its advantages are thoroughly appreciated. Over 48 per cent. of the cultivated area has been already watered by artificial means; and when the proposed extensions of the canal system are completed, there will be an immense improvement in this respect. As many as 104,773 acres were irrigated from canals alone in 1874, and the amount supplied from wells and ponds brings up the total to 265,208 acres. As elsewhere, the canals have been instrumental, not merely in extending the area of cultivation, but also in improving the character of the crops, by substituting indigo, sugar-cane, opium, and superior cereals for the commoner sorts of grain. The condition of the peasantry is comfortable; the Bráhman and Rájput proprietors are in easy circumstances. The people are better clothed and better fed than formerly, and their standard of living has been steadily rising of late years. The proprietors till 11 per cent. of the total area as homestead; tenants with rights of occupancy hold 57 per cent.; tenants-at-will cultivate only 23 per cent.; and the remainder is revenue-free. Rents have risen of late years, with the rise of prices and increase of population, but the enhancements have been slow and slight, owing to the strong local feeling in favour of the customary rates. It is difficult to give any statistics, as the amount varies somewhat capriciously, not only with the nature of the soil, but also with the caste of the cultivator and the mode of tenure. Good irrigated land brings in as much as £1, 1s. an acre, common dry lands may fetch as little as 3s. 6d. an acre. The average of all soils may be taken at from 8s. to 10s. Wages have also been on the increase for some years. In 1875, cabinetmakers, masons, and smiths received 7½d. per diem; water-carriers, 4½d. per diem; labourers, 3d.; women and boys, 2¾d. per diem. Prices in the cis-Jumna tract have risen more than 50 per cent. within the last thirty years. The average prices of food grains for the decade ending in 1870 were as follows:—Wheat, 4s. 8d. per cwt.; gram, 5s. 4d. per cwt.; *joár*, 3s. 11¾d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Etáwah has suffered much in previous years from drought, which produced famines in 1803, 1813, 1819, and 1837. In 1860-61, the District escaped with comparatively little distress, though even here measures of relief were necessary, and the number of persons relieved amounted in all to 54,101. In 1868-69, again, Etáwah was not visited with nearly so much severity as many other portions of the Doáb. Though one-half of the *kharíf* harvest was destroyed, rain fell in time to bring the *rabí* to fully two-thirds of its average amount. The highest price reached by wheat during the period of scarcity was about 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5d. per cwt. The spread of irrigation has done much

to remove the extreme danger of famine; and the construction of the new Lower Ganges Canal will probably render the District safe in future years from actual want of food, so far as human calculation can foresee.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The exports of Etáwah consist almost entirely of agricultural produce, amongst which the chief items are cotton, gram, and oil-seeds. Some of the cotton goes as far as Bombay, and a little is even sent beyond the bounds of India itself. Cloth goods, metals, drugs, and spices form the staple imports. They are distributed to consumers by the medium of religious fairs, one of which, at Doba, sometimes attracts as many as 30,000 visitors. There is also a good deal of through traffic to and from Gwalior, grain passing outward and *ghí* inward. The communications have improved greatly of late years. The East Indian Railway runs through the centre of the District, with stations at Jaswantnagar, Etáwah, Bharthna, Achalda, and Phaphúnd. The Jumna is also largely used as a water-way, and carries a great part of the heavy traffic. The District contains 62 miles of 'first-class' roads, bridged and metalled throughout; the 'second' and 'third' class roads have a total length of 124 and 313 miles respectively.

Administration.—In 1860, the total revenue amounted to £136,582, of which £121,375, or eight-ninths of the whole, was due to the land tax. At the same date, the total expenditure amounted to £90,103, or two-thirds of the revenue. In 1873, the receipts had risen to £191,097, while the land-tax remained almost stationary at £128,540. The increase was mainly owing to irrigation dues and other rates. In the same year, the expenditure was £110,174, or less than three-fifths of the revenue. In 1875, the administrative staff consisted of 3 covenanted civilians, with 6 subordinate officers; and the District contained 13 magisterial courts. The regular police in 1875 numbered 531 men of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £7306, chiefly from provincial funds. This force was supplemented by 1388 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*) and 82 road patrols, upon whose maintenance a further sum of £5341 was expended. The whole machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2001 men of all ranks, being 1 man to every 0·84 square mile and every 334 inhabitants; and the total expense of the establishment was £12,647, or about 4½d. per head of the population. The number of persons convicted for any offence in 1874 was 1556, or 1 to every 429 inhabitants. A single jail suffices for the criminal population; the average daily number of prisoners in 1870 was 226, or 0·036 per cent. of the inhabitants. The cost per head in that year was £4, 17s. 1¼d., and the average earnings of each prisoner was 16s. 7½d. In 1874-75, there were 237 schools, with 4608 pupils, and the sum expended on education amounted to £3458. The District possesses a superior educational establishment in

Hume's High School, founded by the Collector of that name in 1861, and now under European management. In 1873, it contained 187 pupils; and between 1865 and 1873, 42 boys matriculated successfully for the Calcutta University. The annual cost to Government is £1160. The District is subdivided into 5 *tahsíls* and *parganás*, with an aggregate of 1813 estates, owned by 15,523 registered proprietors or coparceners; average land revenue paid by each estate, £73, 4s. 7d., and by each proprietor, £8, 11s. 0¾d. There were 2 municipalities in 1875-76, Etáwah and Jaswantnagar, the latter of which has now been abolished. Their joint revenue amounted to £3530, and their expenditure to £3345; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 6⅞d. per head of population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Etáwah was formerly reported as hot and sultry to an oppressive degree, but the planting of trees and the spread of canal irrigation have modified its character of late years. It is now comparatively moist and equable, and the District is among the healthiest in the plains of India. The rainfall was 49·6 inches in 1867-68, 14·8 inches in 1868-69 (the year of scarcity), 34·2 inches in 1869-70, and 46·6 inches in 1870-71. The chief endemic disease is fever of a malarious type, which seems occasionally to assume an epidemic typhoidal form. The District is also visited from time to time by small-pox and cholera. In 1874, the total number of deaths recorded was 19,276 (28·83 per 1000 of the population); and of these no fewer than 12,684 were due to fever alone, while 4841 were set down to small-pox. The cattle of Etáwah are subject to frequent attacks both of rinderpest and of foot-and-mouth disease.

Etáwah.—North-western *tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces, including a considerable tract in the Doáb, watered by a branch of the Ganges Canal, and extending into the ravine-covered country on the banks of the Jumna (Jamuná), together with an isolated wedge of land between that river and the Chambal, consisting for the most part of wild jungle-clad gorges. Area, 425 square miles, of which 222 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 186,299; land revenue, £27,813; total Government revenue, £29,473; rental paid by cultivators, £49,032; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 0½d.

Etáwah.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 461 acres; pop. (1872), 30,549, being 21,241 Hindus, 9256 Muhammadans, and 52 Christians. Situated in lat. 26° 45′ 31″ N., and long. 79° 3′ 18″ E., among the ravines on the left bank of the Jumna, at a point where the river bends sharply backwards upon its own course. The suburbs stretch down nearly to the water's edge, but the main quarter is separated from the stream by a mass of gorges, about half a mile in breadth. The East Indian Railway has a station outside the town.

Hume-ganj, a handsome square, called after a late Collector, A. O. Hume, C.B., contains the public buildings, and forms the centre of the city. It includes a market-place, *tahsíli* and Magistrates' courts, mission-house, police station, and dispensary. Hume's High School is a handsome building, erected chiefly by private subscription. The north and south sides of the square form the principal grain and cotton markets. A *sarái*, with a fine well and arched gateway, adjoins the square. The Jamá Masjíd, or 'great mosque,' originally a Hindu or Buddhist temple, stands on the right-hand side of the Gwalior road, and is interesting from its numerous fragments of early workmanship. The Asthala, situated in a grove to the west of the city, ranks first among the Hindu places of worship; it was built about ninety years ago by one Gopál Dás, a Bráhman, in honour of Nara Sinha, an incarnation of Vishnu. Another Hindu temple, dedicated to Mahádeo Tiksí, stands among the ravines between the city and the Jumna. The bathing *gháts* along the river's edge are lined by many handsome shrines; and a modern Jain building, with a lofty white spire, forms a striking object. The fort, the stronghold of a Thákur in olden times, appears to have been founded on a still earlier mound, and makes a handsome ruin, with massive bastions and an underground passage, used to the present day as a pathway to the summit. The picturesque position of Etáwah in the midst of ravines, and the trees dotted about amongst its straggling *mahallas* (wards), give it a pleasant and shady appearance, very rare in Indian towns. The city dates back to a period before the Musalmán conquest, both Mahmúd of Ghazní and Shaháb-ud-dín Ghorí having plundered it during their respective expeditions. The fort was built by the Chauháns on their immigration into this wild tract, and occupied by a Musalmán governor after their expulsion. Bábar and the Muhammadan historians frequently mention it as a place of great strength. In the 17th century, Etáwah became a famous banking and commercial town, but suffered greatly, on the decline of the Mughal empire, from Rohillá and Marhattá raids. For its later history and the events of the Mutiny, see ETAWAH DISTRICT. The modern civil station lies about half a mile to the north of the town, and contains the railway station, jail, District offices, English church, and public gardens, besides telegraph and post offices. Trade in *ghí*, gram, cotton, and oil-seeds. Imports of grain from the Punjab, on its way to Gwalior; exports of cotton to Cawnpore and Mírzápur. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £3064; from taxes, £2435, or 1s. 7¼d. per head of population (30,386) within municipal limits.

Everest, Mount.—The loftiest known peak in the world, situated in the Nepál ranges of the HIMALAYAS, beyond Bengal. Lat. 27° 59′ 12″ N., long. 86° 58′ 6″ E. Altitude above the sea, 29,002 feet. Named in honour of Sir G. Everest, Surveyor-General of India, by his successor,

Sir Andrew Waugh, at the time when the height was first accurately calculated.

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Faizábád (*Fyzábád*).—A Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 9′ and 28° 24′ N. lat., and between 81° 5′ and 83° 9′ E. long. Area (Parliamentary return, 1877), 7118 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1869, 2,965,084. The Division comprises the three Districts of FAIZABAD, GONDA, and BAHRAICH, all of which see separately. It is bounded on the north by the Nepál *tarái;* on the east by Gorakhpur; on the south by Azamgarh and Sultánpur; and on the west by Bára Bánki, Sítápur, and Kheri. Number of towns or villages, 7366; number of houses, 565,576. The population (1869) consists of—2,648,070 Hindus (89·35 per cent. of the total); Muhammadans, 315,604 (10·65 per cent.); Christians, 1410. Average density of population, 416 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·03; houses per square mile, 79; persons per village, 402—per house, 5·2. Number of males, 1,534,118, or 51·7 per cent. of total population.

Faizábád (*Fyzábád*).—A District of Oudh, in the Division of the same name, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 9′ and 26° 50′ N. lat., and between 81° 43′ and 83° 9′ E. long. Area (Parliamentary return, 1877), 1649 square miles; population, according to Census of 1869, after allowing for recent changes of area, 1,024,092. Prior to recent administrative transfers, the District contained an area of 2332 square miles, and a population of 1,440,957. In shape, the District is an irregular parallelogram running from west to east, with a slight tendency southwards; length, varying from 85 miles in the north to 64 in the south; average width, from 20 to 25 miles. Bounded on the north by Gonda and Basti Districts, the Gogra river forming the boundary line; on the east by Gorakhpur; on the south by Azamgarh and Sultánpur; and on the west by Bára Bánki.

Physical Aspects.—The physical features of the country are similar to those of the neighbouring Districts of Oudh, and require but brief notice. Faizábád consists of a densely populous, well cultivated plain of great fertility, having an average elevation of 350 feet above sea level, without hills or valleys, and devoid of forests, but well wooded with numerous mango and bamboo groves, and scattered *pípal* and *simul* trees. The drainage is towards the south-east. The principal river, and that which affords the chief means of communication between Faizábád and the Gangetic valley, is the Gogra, which flows

along its whole northern frontier for a distance of 95 miles, being navigable throughout by the largest-sized cargo-boats and river steamers. The banks of the river are about 25 feet above cold-weather water level. They are never flooded, but a breadth of low-lying land between the banks and the stream is submerged every rainy season. The other rivers are—the Tons, formed by the confluence of the Bisoi and the Madha rivers; and the Majhoi, which marks the boundary between Faizábád and Sultánpur. The Tons is navigable during the rains as far as Akbarpur by boats of about 5 tons burden. Its banks are steep; in many places covered with *usár*, in others fringed with jungle. Many other small streams flow through the District. Water is everywhere abundant, and lies close to the surface. Although there are no large *jhíls* or lakes, there are innumerable artificially constructed tanks and natural water holes and small swamps, which afford ample means for easy irrigation. Owing perhaps to the greater extent of cultivation, Faizábád is worse stocked with game than any other District of Oudh. Wild pigs are tolerably numerous near the Gogra, and black buck are occasionally met with in the west of the District; bears and spotted deer are unknown; ducks and geese comparatively scarce. Fisheries unimportant.

History.—The early history of Faizábád is that of AJODHYA, of which kingdom it formed a part. Passing from the time of Rámchandra—the hero of the Sanskrit epic, the *Rámáyana*—through the subsequent period of Buddhist supremacy; its decline; the revival of Bráhmanism under King Vikramáditya of Ujjain; the struggles between Buddhism and Bráhmanism; and the subsequent re-establishment of the Bráhmanical faith about the 8th century A.D.—we come to the first event in what may be called the modern history of the country, namely the Muhammadan invasion. In 1030 A.D., Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, the son of Sálár Sáhu, one of the generals of Sultán Mahmúd, invaded Oudh, and passed through Faizábád. It is not certain whether any great battle was fought here, but a portion of the high road is still pointed out, along which the country people will not pass after dark. They say that at night the road is thronged with headless horsemen of Sayyid Sálár's army. Sayyid Sálár, after a series of victories, was slain, and his troops completely defeated, at BAHRAICH by the confederate Rájput princes. These afterwards turned against each other, and the Province seems to have been split up into a number of petty fiefs. After the conquest of Kanauj, the Musalmáns again overran Oudh, and succeeded in consolidating their rule. Ajodhya long remained the capital of the Province; but by the early part of the 18th century, it had given way to Faizábád, a few miles to the west. Shujá-ud-dín, however, was the first of the Oudh Viceroys, who made Faizábád his permanent residence in 1756. After his death in 1780, the capital was removed to Lucknow.

The only important event in the history of the District since the annexation of the Province was the Mutiny of 1857. In the early part of that year, the troops in cantonments consisted of the 22d Bengal Native Infantry, the 6th Irregular Oudh Cavalry, a company of the 7th Bengal Artillery, and a horse battery of light field guns. The troops revolted on the night of the 8th June, but the outbreak was not accompanied with the scenes of massacre which occurred at other military stations. The European officers, with their wives and families, were allowed to leave unmolested; and although some of them were attacked in their flight by mutineers of other regiments, they nearly all succeeded, after more or less hardship, in reaching places of safety. A Muhammadan landholder, Mír Muhammad Husáin Khán, sheltered one party in his small fort for several days, until the road was open and they could reach Gorakhpur in safety.

Population.—The population of Faizábád, according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent transfers, is 524,431 males and 499,661 females; total, 1,024,092, dwelling in 2567 villages and townships, and 193,479 houses; average pressure of the population on the soil, 621 per square mile. The Hindus number 922,360, or 90 per cent. of the total; Muhammadans, 100,410, or 9·8 per cent.; Christians, 1322, of whom 1267 are returned as Europeans. The castes of Faizábád are the same as those which are found in the rest of Oudh. The Bráhmans are the most numerous, forming about 15 per cent. of the total population of the District; Chamárs, the lowest in social rank, come next, numbering about 12 per cent.; then Ahírs, and then Kshattriyás, who hold two-thirds of the soil, but form only 7 per cent. of the people; Kurmís constitute 6 per cent.; and Korís, Kahárs, Vaisyas, Mallas, and Muráos, each about 3 per cent. The Census returned 89 different castes of Hindus. The Muhammadans are divided as to sect into Sunnis and Shiás, the former constituting the great majority. The Shiás, however, are influential, and are principally met with in Faizábád city, which was for long the residence of a Shiá court. Five towns in the District contain a population (1869) exceeding 5000—viz. FAIZABAD (population, 37,804); TANDA, 13,543; AJODHYA, 7518; JALALPUR, 6275; and SINJHAULI, 5069 to 5614. Faizábád and Ajodhya, which are adjacent towns, have been constituted into a single municipality. The only other municipality is Tánda. Of the 3479 villages which the District contained in 1869, prior to the recent changes of area, 1311 contained fewer than 200 inhabitants; 1323 from 200 to 500; 594 from 500 to 1000; 197 from 1000 to 2000; 49 from 2000 to 5000; and 5 upwards of 5000 inhabitants.

Agriculture.—The principal agricultural staples are wheat and rice, which together make up 46 per cent. of the total area under cultivation, which is estimated at 947 square miles, or 606,080 acres,

including land yielding two crops in the year. The acreage under each crop is approximately as follows:—Wheat, 200,000; rice, 150,000; *joár*, *urd*, gram, peas, barley, and *arhar*, each 50,000; sugar-cane, 40,000; and miscellaneous crops, 80,000 acres. Irrigation is largely practised. The water is principally derived from *jhíls* and tanks, but masonry wells are more commonly used for this purpose in Faizábád than in any other District in Oudh. Water is met with at various depths, varying from 12 feet along the banks of the Gogra to 37 feet in parts beyond the old bed of the river. A masonry well, 25 feet deep, and sufficiently large for two pulleys to be worked at once, costs about £25 if mortared, or £17, 10s. if unmortared. Such a well is worked by five men, who can irrigate one local *bíghá* (about 1150 square yards) in a day. One watering costs from 3s. 9d. to 5s. an acre, according to the current rate of wages. In the *tarái*, where water is found within 12 feet of the surface, the well is a mere hole, and 3 men are able to irrigate a *bíghá* at a cost of from 2s. 4½d. to 3s. 1½d. for each watering. As a rule, sugar-cane is watered 10 times, opium and tobacco each 7, barley, peas, and *masuri*, once. Wheat requires a double well for every 12 acres, opium and tobacco for every 5, and barley, peas, etc., for every 15. Rents are high, and are still rising. The rate per acre for land growing the different crops is thus returned:—Opium and tobacco, 18s. 6d.; sugar-cane, 16s. 6d.; wheat, 13s. 6d.; rice, 10s.; oil-seeds, 8s. 6d.; maize, etc., 7s. 6d. Classified according to the different qualities of land, rents may be set down as follows:—Manured crops near the village, 25s. per acre; irrigated loam, 16s.; unirrigated loam, 12s.; sandy unirrigated loam, 7s. The cultivator's profits are probably the same in Faizábád as in other parts of Oudh—just enough to pay for his labour and for the keeping up of his stock. Of late years, however, owing to the rise of rent, bad harvests, and cattle murrain, they have not reached this standard. The difficulties of the cultivating class are not due to the Government revenue being too heavy, but to pressure put upon them by the petty proprietors and middle-men, who have to raise the rents in order to enable them to live according to their old standard of comfort. The land is divided among a few large and an immense number of small proprietors. The large *tálukdárí* estates are 28 in number, containing an area of 998,000 acres, or an average of 55 square miles each. Included within these fiefs are many sub-tenures, which have been granted by the *tálukdárs* or decreed by the courts. These consist of 703 villages, and cover an area of 250,000 acres, or a little over one-fourth of the parent estates. The number of these sub-proprietors is 22,846, the average area of each estate being 14 acres. The small independent estates number about 17,000; average area, 29 acres. The cultivating tenants are returned at 183,447 in number, the average area of each tenant's

holding being 3½ acres. Tenants possessing occupancy rights are said to number 2288, or about 2½ per cent. of the whole. Wages are paid both in money and in grain. Throughout the District the ordinary rate of money wages for unskilled labour is 1¾d. a day, but is higher in the neighbourhood of Faizábád town. Prices of food grains have considerably advanced of late years. Between the ten years 1861-1870, prices for common unhusked rice rose from 3s. to 4s. 2d. a cwt., common husked rice from 7s. to 8s. 2d., wheat from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 11d., *joár* from 3s. 6d. to 4s. 7d., *bájra* from 4s. 2d. to 7s. 10d., gram from 4s. 8d. to 6s. 3d., *arhar* from 4s. 7d. to 5s. 9d., *urd* from 5s. 6d. to 7s. 3d., *múg* from 7s. 2d. to 8s. 4d., *masuri* from 4s. 2d. to 5s. 7d. a cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The two last famines which afflicted the District occurred in 1869 and 1874, being caused by the failure of the rains in the preceding years. The entire rainfall of neither year was deficient; but the distribution was capricious, and no rain fell in those months when it was most needed for agricultural purposes. Famines in Faizábád are of two kinds—one of food itself, and the other of the means to purchase food, which may be termed a labour famine. The first outward sign of distress is shown when the small farmers, who pay their labourers grain wages, turn them off to shift for themselves. The result is that these men emigrate from the District as scarcity approaches, long before there is absolute famine; the demand for food is diminished, and the crisis perhaps tided over till the next harvest. Another cause which mitigates the effect of a bad crop in Faizábád, is the great variety of the staples sown. Rice, *joár*, barley, gram, *urd*, and peas are all grown in fair proportion; while in the neighbouring Districts of Gonda and Bahráich, if the rice fails, there is nothing to fall back upon. In Faizábád, the harvests follow within every two months of each other, except from June to September.

Communications, Trade, Commerce, etc.—Besides the water highway along the Gogra, means of communication are afforded by two good metalled roads to Sultánpur, Partábgarh, and Allahábád on the north, and to Daryábád, Nawábganj, and Lucknow on the west, aggregating 60 miles in Faizábád District. Good unmetalled roads cross the country in every direction, aggregating 428 miles. There are numerous ferries on the Gogra, and a bridge of boats is maintained at Faizábád town during the dry season. A branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway also intersects the District for a length of 66 miles, with stations at Akbarpur, Gosáinganj, Nára, Ajodhya, Faizábád, and Sohwál. The trade of Faizábád District cannot be estimated with any approach to accuracy. The registered river-borne imports and exports for 1872 and 1873 are returned as follows:—The value of the imports, consisting principally of sugar, tobacco, spices, salt, cattle, and English piece-goods, was returned at £159,350 in 1872, and £158,272 in

1873; while that of the exports (principally wheat and other food grains, hides, timber, country cloth, etc.) was returned at £333,336 and £306,325 in 1872 and 1873 respectively. The figures, however, do not show the actual exports and imports of the District, but merely indicate the course of river trade at marts within the river boundary. The internal trade by road or river with other parts of Oudh is not given. For instance, Faizábád exports a vast quantity of opium by rail to Lucknow; but although much of it is produced in Faizábád itself, none of it, or of any other railway traffic, is credited to the District in the trade returns. These, again, exhibit Faizábád as a large importer of sugar; it really produces more than is required for its own consumption. The fact is that the sugar of Basti and Azamgarh passes through Faizábád to Lucknow, whence it is distributed to Cawnpore and Bareli. Country cloth is largely exported from Tánda; timber is exported really from Kheri and Bahráich, but is credited to Faizábád, as the logs are counted in this District. The grain exported is mainly rice, wheat, and maize, but much of it comes from neighbouring Districts, and is embarked in Faizábád, which acts as an emporium for Eastern Oudh.

Administration.—The judicial staff consists of the Divisional Commissioner, sessions judge, deputy commissioner, with 2 European and 3 native assistants, a cantonment magistrate, and 4 revenue collectors (*tahsíldárs*). There are also 11 magistrates, all of whom have civil and revenue powers; besides 3 honorary magistrates. The total imperial revenue of the District in 1875-76 amounted to £151,856, of which £133,242 was derived directly from the land. The total expense of civil administration, as represented by the cost of the District officials and police, amounted in the same year to £18,097. The regular police force in 1873 consisted of 576 officers and men, maintained at a cost to the State of £8058; the village watch or rural police consisted of 2203 men, maintained by the landholders at a cost of £5347; and there was also a municipal force of 197 men, costing £1524 from municipal funds. During 1873, 4050 cases were brought by the police before the magistrates, and 3239 convictions obtained. Faizábád has the worst criminal reputation in Oudh, particularly for cattle-stealing and poisoning; 19 persons of the Chámár or leather-dealing caste were convicted of cattle poisoning in 1872, the motive being simply to obtain the hide. *Parganá* Birhár is notorious for cattle-lifting. Crime reaches its maximum in July, the month when grain is scarcest. The Government or aided educational institutions consisted in 1872-73, of 162 schools, attended by 4633 pupils; and in the following year, of 167 schools, with 4801 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The rainfall of Faizábád is more regular than in Western Oudh, and during the fourteen years ending 1875 has averaged 43·2 inches. Mean temperature (1875), May 87·9° F., July 85·6

December 65·6° F. The principal diseases of the District are fevers. Small-pox is also prevalent, and cholera occasionally makes its appearance in an epidemic form.

Faizábád (*Fyzábád*).—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Faizábád District, Oudh, lying between 26° 32′ 30″ and 26° 50′ N. lat., and between 81° 51′ and 82° 31′ 15″ E. long.; bounded on the north by Begamganj *tahsíl* of Gonda, on the east by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces, on the south by Bíkápur *tahsíl*, and on the west by Rám Sanehí *tahsíl* of Bára Bánki. Area, 342 square miles, of which 208 are cultivated. Pop., according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent changes of area—Hindus, 244,212; Musalmáns, 34,535: total, 278,747, viz. 143,640 males and 135,107 females. Number of villages or townships, 479; average density of population, 815 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the 3 *parganás* of Haweli Oudh, Mangalsi, and Amsír.

Faizábád (*Fyzábád*).—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Faizábád District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 46′ 45″ N., and long. 82° 11′ 40″ E., on the left bank of the river Gogra, 78 miles east of Lucknow; adjoining it to the west is the modern town of Ajodhya, both towns being on the site of the ancient city of AJODHYA. The town is a comparatively modern one, although there are several ancient Muhammadan buildings in its vicinity. Mansúr Alí Khán, Viceroy of Oudh, in 1732 passed a portion of his time here; but his successor, Shujá-ud-daulá, took up his permanent residence at Faizábád, and made it the Provincial capital in 1760. Twenty years later, Asíf-ud-daulá moved the court back again to Lucknow. Pop. (1869) (exclusive of Europeans and troops), 21,930 Hindus and 14,620 Muhammadans—total, 36,550, in 8077 houses, 1776 being of masonry. The city has fallen into decay since the death of the celebrated Bahu Begam in 1816, who had held it rent-free since 1798, and who lived and died here. Her mausoleum is described as 'the finest building of the kind in Oudh.' The Dílkusha palace adjoining the tomb was the residence of this lady; it is now the opium storehouse. Several other Muhammadan buildings, mosques, gardens, etc., all more or less out of repair, are situated in the town. Faizábád together with Ajodhya constitutes one municipality. The municipal income (1876-77) amounted to £4764, and the expenditure to £4410; average rate of taxation, 2s. 3¾d. per head of the population within municipal limits. There are numerous markets in the town, and trade is very active, the estimated annual sales within municipal limits amounting to £148,780, of which upwards of one-half consists of wheat, rice, and food grains. Large station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, and also a military cantonment. Total pop. (1869), 37,804.

Faizpur.—Town in Khandesh District, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 11′ N., and long. 75° 56′ E., 72 miles north-east of Dhuliá. Pop. (1872), 8365. Faizpur is famous for its cotton prints, and its dark

blue and red dyes. There are about 250 families who dye thread, turbans, and other pieces of cloth, and print cloth of all sorts. Weekly timber market.

Fakhrpur.—*Parganá* in Bahráich District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nánpára *parganá*, on the east and south by Bahráich and Hisámpur, and on the west by Sitápur District. A large *parganá*, which has undergone many changes of area. As at present defined, it comprises a great portion of what was once Firozábád, while, on the other hand, a number of its former villages have been transferred to Hisámpur. The Sarju and a small sluggish stream, the Bhakosa, flow through the *parganá*, and several well-defined deserted channels mark old beds of the Gogra (Ghagrá), which now flows to the south. Water is commonly met with so close to the surface, that irrigation is scarcely required. Area, 383 square miles, of which 217 are under cultivation and 114 are cultivable waste. Government land revenue, £9248; average incidence, 1s. 5⅜d. per acre of cultivated area, 11⅜d. per acre of assessed area, and 9⅞d. per acre of total area. The principal landlord is the Rájá of Kapurthála, on whom the estate of the rebel Rájá of Baundi has been conferred at a quit-rent for ever. Sardárs Fateh Sinh and Jugjot Sinh, reputed grandsons of Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh of Lahore, are the grantees of the Cháhlári Rájá's estate. The Rájá of Rahwá's estates also lie almost entirely in this *parganá*. Of the 288 villages which compose the *parganá*, 227 are held under *tálukdári* tenure, and 161 are permanently settled. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 125,899; Muhammadans, 14,200; total, 140,099, viz. 74,045 males and 66,054 females; average density of population, 366 per square mile. Most numerous castes — Bráhmans, 19,262; Ahírs, 17,812; Chamárs, 15,316. Three lines of road intersect the *parganá*. Eight market villages, the most important of which is at Jáitápur, which has a large well-frequented *bázár*. Government schools maintained in nine villages, besides an English town school at Baundi; police station at Sísia; post offices at Baundi and Sísia.

Fakhrpur.—Town in Bahráich District, Oudh; on the high road from Bahramghát to Bahráich, 10½ miles from the latter town. Lat. 27° 25′ 55″ N., long. 81° 31′ 41″ E. The town is pleasantly situated among park-like groves of mango trees, but is unhealthy, owing to bad water; goitre is very prevalent. In former times the place is said to have been held by Ahírs. In Akbar's reign it was made the head-quarters of a *parganá* named after it, a fort was built, and a *tahsíl* or revenue collectorate established. Up to 1818, the *tahsíldár* had his fort and treasury here, but in the latter year the larger portion of the *parganá* was incorporated in the Baundi estate (*iláká*), and from that time the fort has ceased to be used. The village has been held now for many years by the revenue officers of the *parganá*. Pop. (1869)

Hindus, 1236, and Muhammadans, 904; total, 2140, residing in 409 mud houses. Saltpetre is prepared, but not to any great extent. No market. Government school.

Fakírganj.—Commercial village in Dinájpur District, Bengal. Trade in rice, tobacco, gunny cloth, sugar, and jute.

Fakírhát.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 23′ 30″ N., long. 89° 7′ 15″ E. Bi-weekly market. Traffic carried on entirely by means of water communication.

False Point.—Cape, harbour, and lighthouse in Cuttack District, Bengal; situated in lat. 20° 20′ 10″ N., and long. 86° 46′ 25″ E., on the north of the Mahánadi estuary, and consisting of an anchorage, land-locked by islands and sandbanks, with two navigable channels. False Point takes its name from the circumstance that it was often mistaken by ships for Point Palmyras, one degree farther north. It is the best harbour on the Indian coast between the Húgli and Bombay. The lighthouse stands on the point which screens it from the southern monsoon, in lat. 20° 19′ 52″ N., long. 86° 46′ 57″ E. The anchorage is protected by two sandy reefs, named Long Island and Dowdeswell Island, and is completely land-locked by the latter. Point Reddie, on Dowdeswell Island, shelters the entrance. Farther in lies Plowden Island, for the most part a low jungly swamp, but with a limited area of high ground suitable for building purposes, and with good drinking water. The harbour is safe and roomy, the channel properly buoyed, and a soft mud bottom prevents injury to vessels running aground. The port is now open throughout the year, and ships of large tonnage can lie in security in all weathers. Two separate channels lead inland from the anchorage—the JAMBU river on the north, and on the south the BAKUD creek, a short deep branch of the Mahánadi. Bars of sand intervene between the anchorage and these channels, but at full tide cargo-boats and steamers enter with ease. Several tidal creeks, narrow and winding, but navigable by country boats throughout the year, connect False Point with the Dhámra and Bráhmani rivers on the north, and with the Dévi on the south.

History of False Point Harbour.—It is only within the last twenty years that the capabilities of False Point Harbour have been appreciated. Prior to this period—although the place is but two days by steamer from Calcutta—no regular communication existed, and the exports, consisting chiefly of rice, were entirely in the hands of native shipmasters from Madras. The port was opened in 1860, about which date an enterprising French firm in Calcutta established an agency for the export of rice, and the East Indian Irrigation Company perceived its natural advantages as an import depôt. But it was during the year of the great Orissa famine (1866), when Government was anxiously exploring every means of throwing supplies into the Province, that the capabilities of

False Point were first publicly appreciated. The formation of new canals has been the making of the port. The KENDRAPARA CANAL, which reaches from Cuttack for a distance of 42½ miles, connects False Point with the capital of Orissa; and False Point has now become the entrepôt for the trade of the Province. A small Government steamer plies between the harbour and the entrance to the canal at Mársághái a distance of 23 miles; the extension of the canal from Mársághái for 15 miles nearer False Point is now in course of construction. The British Indian General Steam Navigation Company make the place a regular port of call; it is also visited by French ships from Mauritius, which take rice and oil-seeds for that island, and for Havre, Bordeaux, and other French ports. False Point was formerly considered very unhealthy; but the malaria to which it owed this evil reputation has, to a great extent, disappeared. A harbourmaster and superintendent of customs have been appointed.

Trade.—In 1860, 4 vessels, with a total tonnage of 2830 tons, entered the port; the value of exports was returned at £6759. During the years between 1863-64 and 1874-75, the trade has increased from £51,921 to £261,212, or upwards of five-fold, and the number of vessels from 16 (tonnage, 8681) to 110 (tonnage, 118,375). The chief trade is with other Indian ports.

Falta.—Village in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the Húglí, nearly opposite its point of junction with the Dámodar. Lat. 22° 18′ N., long. 88° 10′ E. The site of an old Dutch factory, and also noted as the place of retreat of the English fleet on the capture of Calcutta by Suráj-ud-daulá.

Faradnagar. — Town in Noákhálí District, Bengal, and head-quarters of the Pheni Subdivision; situated in lat. 22° 57′ N., and long. 91° 30′ 15″ E., near the Grand Trunk Road, 2 miles north of the Big Pheni *ghát* at Bhurbhuriá.

Farah.—North-western *tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying wholly on the right or western bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), and consisting for the most part of an alluvial plain. Area, 202 square miles, of which 159 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 100,498; land revenue, £16,728; total Government revenue, £19,001; rental paid by cultivators, £29,156; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 7d.

Farah.—Chief town of the *tahsíl* of the same name, Agra District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 19′ N., and long. 77° 49′ E., on the route from Agra to Muttra (22 miles north-west of the former, and 13 miles south-east of the latter), a mile from the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná). Well supplied with water. Small *bázár*.

Farídábád.—Municipal town in Delhi District, Punjab; 16 miles

south of Delhi. Lat. 28° 25′ N., long. 77° 21′ 45″ E.; pop. (1868), 7990, being 5741 Hindus, 1952 Muhammadans, 8 Síkhs, and 289 'others.' Formed part of the estate held by the Rájá of Ballabhgarh, but was confiscated with the rest of his possessions after the Mutiny of 1857. Founded in 1605 A.D., during the reign of Jahángír, by one Shaikh Faríd, from whom it takes its name. Police station, school-house, *sarái*. Little trade, no manufactures. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £309, or 9¾d. per head of population (7583) within municipal limits.

Farídkot.—One of the Síkh States, under the political superintendence of the Punjab Government; lying between 30° 13′ 30″ and 30° 50′ N. lat., and between 74° 31′ and 75° 5′ E. long., south-east of Firozpur (Ferozepur) District, and north-west of Patiála. It consists of two portions, Farídkot proper and Kot-Kapúra. Farídkot, the chief town, is 60 miles south-west of Ludhiána (lat. 30° 40′ N., long. 74° 59′ E.). The chief of the State is head of the Burar Ját tribe. One of his ancestors, named Bhallan, in the time of the Emperor Akbar, acquired great influence, and laid the foundation of the greatness of his house. His nephew built the fort of Kot-Kapúra, and made himself an independent ruler. Early in the present century, the Kot-Kapúra District was seized by Ranjít Sinh, and in the following year Farídkot was also taken; but when the British Government demanded from the Maháráján the restitution of all his conquests made on the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj) during 1808 and 1809, Farídkot was unwillingly resigned to its former possessors. The revenue of the State was at that time both small and fluctuating. The country was entirely dependent on rain for cultivation, and this falls in small quantities, and in some years not at all. Wells were difficult to sink, and hardly repaid the labour of making them, the water being from 90 to 120 feet below the surface. On the outbreak of the Síkh war in 1845, the chief, Pahár Sinh, exerted himself in the English cause, and was raised to the rank of Rájá, and further rewarded by a grant of half the territory confiscated from the Rájá of Nábha, his ancestral estate of Kot-Kapúra being then restored to him. Wazír Sinh, the son and successor of Pahár Sinh, served on the side of the British during the second Síkh war in 1849. In the Mutiny of 1857, he distinguished himself by seizing mutineers, guarding the Sutlej ferries, and attacking a notorious rebel, Sham Dás, whose village he destroyed. For these services Wazír Sinh was duly rewarded. He died in April 1874, and was succeeded by his son, Bikram Sinh, the present Rájá, who was born in 1842. He holds his State under a *sanad* of 1863, by which the domain belongs for ever to the Rájá and his male heirs lawfully begotten. The right of adoption has also been accorded. The Rájá has abandoned excise and transit duties in exchange for compensation. He is entitled to a salute of 11

guns. The area of the State is 600 square miles, its population in 187[illegible] was estimated at 68,000 persons, and its revenue at £30,000. Th[illegible] military force consists of 200 cavalry, 600 infantry and police, and [illegible] field guns.

Farídpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship [illegible] Bengal, lying between 22° 47′ 53″ and 23° 54′ 55″ N. lat., and betwee[illegible] 89° 21′ 50″ and 90° 16′ E. long. Area in 1877, after recent transfer[illegible] 2365 square miles; population in 1879 (according to the Census [illegible] 1872, but allowing for the transfers just referred to), 1,502,436. Bounde[illegible] on the north and east by the Padmá or main stream of the Ganges; o[illegible] the west by the Chandná, Barásiá, and Madhumatí rivers; and on th[illegible] south by the Kumár and a line of swamps. The civil station and chi[illegible] town of the District is FARIDPUR town (*Q.V.*), on the bank of th[illegible] Mará Padmá.

Physical Aspects.—Farídpur District is essentially a fluvial creatio[illegible] and exhibits the later stages in the formation of the Gangetic delt[illegible] In the north, the level is now comparatively well raised, an[illegible] lies above water during the summer and cold weather months. Bu[illegible] from the town of Farídpur the level gradually declines down th[illegible] delta to the southward, until on the confines of BAKARGANJ DISTRIC[illegible] the country sinks into one vast swamp, never entirely dry. The so[illegible] changes from a light sandy loam in the north, to a comparatively rece[illegible] alluvial deposit farther south. The highest levels, as in other delta[illegible] Districts, are found on the river banks, being formed by the annu[illegible] deposits from overflow. The lowest levels lie midway between th[illegible] rivers, as such situations obtain less silt from overflows, and rema[illegible] perennial swamps. The population clings to the higher levels; and th[illegible] villages are chiefly built along the river banks, or on the margin of th[illegible] swamps, surrounded with a picturesque jungle of bamboos, betel palm[illegible] and plantains. These villages or hamlets consist of mud huts, a[illegible] often stand on artificially raised sites, which, during the rainy seas[illegible] rise from the universal expanse of water-like wooded islets. Commu[illegible] cation is almost entirely conducted by water. The District forms [illegible] tongue of land between the two great rivers, the Ganges or Padmá a[illegible] the Madhumatí, and is cut through by their innumerable distributar[illegible] and lines of swamps. The chief of these intersecting water-ways is [illegible] Ariál Khán. Fisheries are extensively carried on in Farídpur, a[illegible] supply an important source of revenue.

History.—The present District of Farídpur has been a grad[illegible] growth, arising out of the desire to bring the courts nearer to [illegible] people. Under Akbar's redistribution of Bengal (1582), Farídpur [illegible] included within the *sarkár* of Muhammad Abúd; and for the next [illegible] centuries remained exposed to the piratical incursions of the Maghs [illegible] Burmese from the seaboard, and of the Assamese, who sailed down

Brahmaputra from the north, ravaging the country on either side. During the first 46 years of British rule (1765-1811), it formed an outlying corner of the great Dacca District, under the name of Dacca Jalálpur. As the headquarters then lay at Dacca town, on the farther side of the Ganges, distinct courts were erected at Farídpur in 1811; and from this year the separate existence of the District dates. After various transfers and readjustments, Farídpur now forms a compact administrative entity, shut in between the Ganges on the east and the Madhumatí on the west.

Population, etc.—No accurate returns of the population exist before the Census of 1872. Since that year, the Subdivision of Mádáripur, excepting Gaternadi *tháná*, has been transferred from Bákarganj District to Farídpur, raising the present area of Farídpur to 2365 square miles, and the population to (1879) 1,502,436. But the Census of 1872 is the only enumeration for which the details in a collected form are available. It disclosed a total population of 1,012,589 persons, inhabiting 157,518 houses; average pressure of population, 677 persons per square mile. The two most densely populated *thánás* in the District are Deorá, reported to have 947, and Bhúshná, 846 inhabitants to the square mile. Classified according to sex, there were in Farídpur District in 1872, 497,854 males and 514,735 females; proportion of males to total population 49·2 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years old—males, 179,536; females, 142,951; total children, 322,487, or 31·8 per cent. of the population. The total number of Hindus in the District was 420,988; Muhammadans, 588,299; Christians, 463; 'others' of unspecified denominations, 2839. Towards the south, the country is almost entirely peopled by Chandáls, a caste or race of Hinduized aborigines, who numbered 156,223 in 1872. The Chandáls are semi-amphibious in their habits, and capable of enduring almost any exposure or fatigue. They are a despised class, and a Bráhman thinks himself defiled by even crossing the shadow cast by a Chandál; but in 1873, they organized a general strike in the District, resolving not to serve the upper classes until their own position was ameliorated. The Bunás, another aboriginal race, number 2412. The majority of the Muhammadans in the District are engaged in husbandry; they are divided into the two classes of Shiás and Sunnis. Daulatpur village, in Farídpur District, was the birthplace of Haji Sharit-ullá, the founder of the Faráizí or reformed sect of Muhammadans, which has rapidly spread throughout the whole of Eastern Bengal during the past fifty years. The Faráizís are properly a branch of the great Sunni division, and in matters of law and speculative theology they profess to belong to the school of Abu Hanifa, one of the four authoritative commentators on the Kurán. Their essential point of difference from the general body of Sunnis consists in their rejection of traditional custom. They

declare that the Kurán is the complete guide to spiritual life; and they, therefore, call themselves Faráizís or followers of the *faráiz* (plural of the Arabic word *farz*), the divine ordinances of God alone. Historically they represent a Puritan reaction against the corrupt condition into which Islám had fallen in Bengal at the close of the last century, and in this as in other respects bear an analogy to the Wahábis of Arabia. There can be no doubt that the vast majority of Musalmáns in the delta of the Ganges and Brahmaputra are descendants of the aborigines, who willingly embraced Islám at the time of the Muhammadan conquest, in preference to remaining outcasts beyond the pale of exclusive Hinduism. But though they became converts in outward profession, they still retained many of the superstitious ceremonies of their former life, and joined in social merry-makings with their fellow-villagers. The reform inaugurated by Haji Sharit-ullá was a protest against such pagan practices, and a return to the simple habits and pure monotheism of the Kurán. In especial, he objected to the squandering of large sums of money on marriage festivities, and to the exclusive employment of certain persons to perform the rite of circumcision. The articles of faith on which he chiefly insisted were the duty of the holy war (*jihád*), the sinfulness of infidelity, (*kufr*) of introducing rites and ceremonies into worship (*bida'at*), and of giving partners to the one god (*shirk*). Externally, a Faráizí may be known by the fashion of wrapping his *dhuti* or waistcloth round his loins without crossing it between his legs, so as to avoid any resemblance to a Christian's trousers, and by his ostentatious mode of offering prayers with peculiar genuflexions in public. The rapid spread of the Faráizí movement in the lifetime of its founder affords sufficient justification for his enthusiasm. On his death, his followers met together and elected his son, Dudu Miyán, as their spiritual chief. This man appears to have abused the implicit confidence imposed in him. He was charged with having applied the subscriptions to his own use, and with many tyrannical acts. On more than one occasion he was sentenced to terms of imprisonment by the British courts, and he finally died in obscurity at Dacca in 1862. He left no direct successor, but three of his sons, together with a nephew, set themselves up as leaders, and still maintain themselves in that profession. At the present day the Faráizís do not exhibit any active fanaticism, nor would it be just to accuse them as a class of disloyalty to the British Government. The majority of them are cultivators of the soil, but not a few occupy the rank of traders, being especially active in the export of hides. All alike are characterised by strictness of morals, religious fervour, and faithful promotion of the common interests of the sect.

In 1872, 2300 villages were returned as having a population under 3000, and 5 towns had from 3000 to 5000 inhabitants; only 2 towns

contained more than 5000, viz. the municipalities of FARIDPUR (8593) and SAYYIDPUR (6324). The other chief towns of the District are Bhángá (pop. 1000), Gopálganj (2000), Goálanda (1000), and Sátair (500).

Agriculture, etc. — Staple products of the District:—Rice, of four principal varieties, viz. *áman* (or winter rice), *aús* (the autumn crop), *boro* (or rice grown in deep water), and *ráidá;* wheat, barley, oats, maize, pulses, tubers, oil-seeds, fibres, sugar-cane, date-palm, indigo, *pán*, fruits, and tobacco. In 1871, 1143 square miles were returned as actually under cultivation. Good land in Farídpur yields 7¾ cwts. of *áman* paddy per acre, and rents at 3s. 9d.; the highest rent paid is under 9s. an acre. From 10 to 12 acres are considered a fair-sized holding for a peasant family. Much land is held on the *mirasi* tenure—a tenure in perpetuity, conveying rights of inheritance and transfer upon the cultivator, and not liable to enhancement of rent. *Hawálá* (*háolá*) and *nunhaiválá* tenures, of a similar character, are also common in this District. The cultivators as a rule are well off, as about 75 per cent. of them have 'occupancy' rights in their holdings. It is estimated that only about 16 per cent. are in debt. The cattle and implements required for 'a plough of land,' or a holding of 5 acres, represent a capital of about £4, 10s.; a peasant family can live respectably on £1 a month. Wages and prices have greatly risen of late years. In 1855, day-labourers received 2¼d. to 3d. per diem—in 1870, from 4½d. to 6d.; carpenters in 1855, 12s. to 16s. a month—in 1870, £1 to £1, 4s. The cultivators do much of their ploughing and reaping by a system of 'mutual assistance' or *gati.* Common rice rose from 2s. 8d. per cwt. in 1860 to 3s. 6d. in 1870; and other staples in proportion.

Natural Calamities.—Partial blights occur nearly every year, being chiefly caused by insects and worms. Floods occur annually on a more or less destructive scale, and are due to the rising of the rivers Padmá and Chándná before they enter Farídpur. The waters spread over the whole District, but seldom cause a general failure of the crops; they did so, however, in 1824, 1838, and 1871. The country is not protected by embankments or other defensive works. Partial droughts occur at intervals, but no precautions are taken against them. The large landholders have not yet undertaken reclamation works with a view to draining the numerous swamps and marshes.

Manufactures, etc. — The most important manufacture of Farídpur, and the staple article of District trade, is sugar, prepared both from the juice of the date-tree and from the cane. Indigo was formerly manufactured to a considerable extent, but all the European factories are now, with one exception, closed. A fine matting called *sítal páti*—very cool to sleep on during the hot season—is skilfully woven out of a

peculiar wild grass. All the local manufactures are conducted by the workers on their own account, and in their own houses, excepting sugar, which is made by hired labourers on monthly wages. Chief articles of trade—rice, pulses, oil-seeds, oil-cake, jute, sugar, molasses, onions, cocoa-nuts, betel-nuts, *ghí*, salt, piece-goods, iron, spices, timber, mustard, oil, fish, mangoes, fruit, oranges, potatoes, honey, brass, bell-metal, and copper utensils. GOALANDA, at the confluence of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, is one of the principal river marts in Eastern Bengal, being the terminus of the railway and the point of departure of the Assam steamers. The chief seats of local trade are—Bhángá, Gopálganj, Boálmari, Sayyidpur, Madhukhálí, and Kámárkhálí. The water-ways carry the entire traffic of the District. There are only three important lines of road in Farídpur—viz. the Calcutta and Jessor Imperial road, from Farídpur town to Dhuliághátá on the Barásiá, 19 miles in length; the Belgáchhí road, from Farídpur to Kálinagar, 16 miles in length; and the Talmá road, from Farídpur to Talmá, 10 miles in length. These roads are often damaged by floods, and at times lie under water for many days. The Eastern Bengal Railway runs for 22 miles from west to east through the north of the District, having its terminus at GOALANDA. The chief native association in Farídpur is a 'Society for the Reform of *Kulinism*, and the Abolition of *Pan*, or the sale of daughters in marriage,' started in the civil station about 1870, and still endeavouring to do good work.

Administration, etc.—Owing to changes in jurisdiction, it is impossible to show accurately the increase in the revenue of Farídpur. In 1850-51, the total revenue of the District was only £10,229, of which £4171 was derived from the land; in that year the total expenditure was £8374. By 1870-71, or within twenty years, the revenue had risen to £58,868, of which £27,321 came from land, and £11,980 from stamps; while the expenditure in the same period had grown to £25,013. The extent to which the subdivision of landed property has progressed may be inferred from the fact that in 1871 there were only 165 estates on the rent-roll, with an average payment of £23, 1s. 0½d.; whereas in 1870 the number of estates was 2307, and the average payment of £11, 16s. 4d. In 1869, there were in the District 4 magisterial, and 11 civil and revenue courts. The regular police force in 1871 numbered 314 men of all ranks (including a river patrol of 43 men, with 4 boats), or 1 man to every 4·85 square miles. The village watch was 2026 strong, and the municipal police numbered 20 men. The total police force, therefore, amounted to 2360 men. In 1870, the daily average number of prisoners in Farídpur jail was 315; total number admitted during the year, 683. The hard-labour prisoners are employed in manufacturing cloth or gunny, gardening, husking rice, and making bamboo or rattan articles. Since the introduction of Sir George

Campbell's reforms (1872), by which primary education was greatly extended, the number of schools rose to 176, and the number of pupils from 2653 to 6497. Active measures are being taken to establish schools among the Chandáls; among whom, out of a total of 156,223 persons, fewer than 200 boys were returned as attending school in 1872. In 1872, the number of villages in Farídpur District was returned at 2307; average population, 439. There are two administrative Subdivisions (FARIDPUR and GOALANDA), and only 3 municipalities (FARIDPUR, MADARIPUR, and SAYYIDPUR); total income (1876-77), £966.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Faridpur is very damp; the rains often set in at the end of April, and by the end of June the greater part of the District is under water. Average annual rainfall for the ten years ending 1868, 85·42 inches. Malarial fevers are prevalent. There is a dispensary at Padamdi; number of out-door patients in 1871, 1078.

Farídpur.—The *Sadr* or Headquarters Subdivision of Farídpur District, Bengal, comprising the seven *thánás* or police circles of Farídpur, Bhúshná, Awánpur, Sadrpur, Deorá, Maksúdpur, and Gopálganj, lying between 22° 52′ 30″ and 23° 38′ N. lat., and between 89° 34′ and 90° 14′ E. long. Area, 1067 square miles; townships, 1381; houses, 107,793. Pop. (1872), 709,451—of whom the Muhammadans number 408,436, or 57·6 per cent.; and the Hindus, 298,728, or 42·1 per cent. The number of Christians is 400; and of persons belonging to 'other' denominations, 1887. Proportion of males, 46·1 per cent. Average pressure of Subdivisional population, 665 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·29; persons per village, 514; houses per square mile, 101; persons per house, 6·6.

Farídpur.—Chief town and civil station of Farídpur District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the small river Mará Padmá, in lat. 23° 36′ 25″ N., and long. 89° 53′ 11″ E. Pop. (1872), 8593. To the south lies the Dhol Samudra, a fresh-water lake, which affords ample drainage except in the height of the rains; water is abundant and tolerably wholesome. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £543; rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 1⅞d. per head of population within municipal limits. In January, an annual agricultural exhibition is held; this show, first instituted in 1864, has of late much increased in importance, and has given a considerable impetus to the manufactures and agriculture of the District. The South Australian Baptist Mission has a branch in the town; and the Bráhma Samáj was represented in December 1857 by 10 followers. An anniversary Samáj is held every year, which is largely attended both by Bráhmas and orthodox Hindus.

Farídpur.—Southern *tahsíl* of Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 249 square miles, of which 177 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 119,811; land revenue, £16,160; total

Government revenue, £17,781; rental paid by cultivators, £30,846; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 0¼d.

Farídpur.—Chief village of the *tahsil* of the same name, Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 12′ 17″ N., and long. 79° 4′ 45″ E., on the route from Bareli town to Sháhjahánpur, 12 miles south-east of the former. Pop. (1872), 4940. Water and supplies abundant. Near the village is a fine mango grove. Surrounding country well cultivated.

Farrukhábád.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 46′ 31″ and 27° 42′ 51″ N. lat., and between 79° 9′ 59″ and 80° 3′ 59″ E. long. Area, 1744 square miles; population (1872), 918,850 persons. Farrukhábád forms the south-eastern District of the Agra Division. It is bounded on the north by Budáun and Sháhjahánpur, on the east by the Oudh District of Hardoi, on the south by Cawnpore and Etáwah, and on the west by Máinpuri and Etah. The administrative headquarters are at FATEHGARH, but Farrukhábád, on the west bank of the Ganges, is the most populous town in the District.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Farrukhábád consists of an irregular strip of country in the middle Doáb, together with a small outlying tract on the left or eastern bank of the Ganges. The former portion presents the usual monotonous features of the great alluvial plain to which it belongs. Starting from the banks of the sacred river, a broad belt of well-watered lowland is first encountered, bounded to the west by the high cliff which marks the ancient limit of the narrower Ganges valley. Above this cliff rises the general upland plain, divided into two main sections by the little stream of the Káli Nadi, and further intersected by the lesser water-courses of the Rind and the Isan. Each of these minor divisions displays the same general characteristics, consisting of a narrow lowland belt along the banks of the boundary rivers, together with a central level of sandy soil (*bhúr*), rising by a series of ravines from the valley below, and culminating in a watershed of loamy earth, often accompanied by marshy lakes and wide expanses of the white saline efflorescence known as *usár*. The dorsal ridge of loam comprises, roughly speaking, the irrigated portion of the District, where wells can be sunk with little difficulty or expense, and cultivation lies in scattered patches, like green islands amongst the barren stretches of *usár*. The trans-Gangetic tract, on the other hand, consists entirely of lowland, scarçely ever rising above the level of the yearly inundations, and liable to a sterile deposit of sand after heavy rains. Much of the land is subject to erosion by the river; and the areas of the villages vary greatly from year to year, as the floods devour or cast up again the cultivable soil. The Rámganga passes through the extreme eastern angle, which it often overflows, forming large but temporary

swamps. The whole District is uniformly though not thickly wooded, and the strip lying along the high bank of the Ganges, a poor and barren tract, has a comparatively large proportion of trees.

History.—The District of Farrukhábád possesses great antiquarian interest, owing to the presence within its boundaries of KANAUJ, the capital of a powerful Hindu kingdom in the earliest centuries of the Christian era. This city lies on the left bank of the Káli Nadi, 4 miles from the modern bed of the Ganges, which once flowed close below its walls. Ruins of ancient buildings extend over the lands of five villages, and occupy a semicircle fully 4 miles in diameter; but as their walls consisted entirely of brick, the foundations alone now remain. The relics are constantly used as a storehouse of building material, so that the traces of the ancient metropolis grow fainter day by day. The principal monument is the shrine of Rájá Ajái Pál, supposed to be the prince conquered by Mahmúd of Ghazní, and killed in 1021 A.D. by the Chandel Rájá of Kálinjar. The famous Gupta dynasty of Kanauj ruled over the whole upper basin of the Ganges for about six centuries, from 315 B.C. to 275 A.D. Their coins and other monuments are still found in considerable numbers over the whole of their wide domain, and have yielded a comparatively consistent chronology to the patient labours of Lassen, Rajendralála Mitra, and English scholars. Tradition points to Thákur colonists as the earliest Aryan settlers in the District, after the extermination of the Bhars, as the aboriginal inhabitants are here universally called. The tract south of the Káli Nadi was peopled by the celebrated Jái Chánd, Rájá of Kanauj; but the northern angle passed into the hands of its present occupants some seven generations later, after the Musalmán invaders had completed the overthrow of its early Tuár possessors. We know nothing of the District, however, from authentic historical records, up to a comparatively modern period of Muhammadan rule. During the 18th century, the northern portion of Farrukhábád, together with many *parganás* now lying in Etah and Máinpuri, constituted the *jágír* of the Nawáb of Farrukhábád; while the southern region was administered by deputies sent from Lucknow. In 1751, on the death of Alí Muhammad, the Rohillá chief (*see* BAREILLY DISTRICT), the emperor refused to acknowledge Háfiz Rahmat Khán as his successor, and despatched the Farrukhábád Nawáb to reduce that turbulent leader to order. Rahmat Khán, however, defeated and slew the imperial lieutenant, four of whose *parganás* in Budáun he proceeded to annex. Safdar Jang, Wazír of Oudh, thereupon plundered the defenceless territories of the Farrukhábád Nawáb; but his interposition led to a union between the Farrukhábád Rohillás and their Bareli clansmen, under the leadership of Háfiz Rahmat Khán. The allied forces defeated Safdar Jang, retook Farrukhábád, and laid siege to Allahábád; while

another body invaded Oudh itself. But Safdar Jang called in the aid of the Marhattás, defeated the Rohillás at Bisauli, near Aonlá, and once more recovered Farrukhábád. His successor, Shujá-ud-daulá, conquered all Rohilkhand in 1774, with the aid of an English force, granted by Warren Hastings; and the whole country remained in his hands until its cession to the British in 1801. From the period of its passage under a firm and regular Government, the District remained free from historical events up to the date of the Mutiny. News of the outbreak at Meerut (Mírath) reached Fatehgarh on the 14th of May 1857; and another week brought tidings of its spread to Aligarh. The 10th Native Infantry showed symptoms of a mutinous spirit on the 29th of May; but it was not till the 3rd of June that a body of Oudh insurgents crossed the Ganges, and arranged for a rising on the following day. The European officials and residents abandoned Fatehgarh the same evening; but several of them returned to Fatehgarh a few days later, and remained till the 18th, when another outbreak occurred, and the rebels placed the Nawáb of Farrukhábád on the throne. The 41st Native Infantry, from Sítápur, marched into Fatehgarh, and the Europeans began to strengthen the fort. On the 25th, the rebels attacked their position, which became untenable by the 4th July. The fort was then mined, and its defenders escaped in boats. The first Fatehgarh boat reached Cawnpore, where all its fugitives were murdered by the Náná on 10th July; the second boat was stopped 10 miles down the Ganges, and all in it were captured or killed except three. The Nawáb governed the District unopposed till the 23rd of October, when he was defeated by the British at Kanauj. Our troops passed on, however, and the Nawáb, with Bakht Khan of Bareli, continued in the enjoyment of power until Christmas. On the 2nd of January 1858, our forces crossed the Káli Nadi, and took Fatehgarh next day. The Nawáb and Firoz Sháh fled to Bareli. Brigadier Hope defeated the Budáun rebels at Shamsábád on the 18th of January, and Brigadier Seaton routed another body on the 7th of April. In May, a force of 3000 Bundelkhand insurgents crossed the District and besieged Káimganj; but they were soon driven off into the last rebel refuge, in Oudh, and order was not again disturbed.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the population of Farrukhábád District at 924,594 persons. In 1865, the number was given at 917,496; while in 1872, it rose again to 918,850. These figures show a decrease for the 19 years of 5744 persons, or 0·63 per cent.; but as the area had undergone meanwhile a loss of 378 square miles, or 21·1 per cent., the decrease may be regarded as merely nominal. The statistics of density more truthfully represent the real state of the case, and they show an actual and considerable increase for every square mile of area; the proportion being 501 persons per square mile in

1853, and 527 in 1872. The enumeration in the last-named year took place over an area of 1744 square miles, and disclosed a total population of 918,850 persons, distributed among 3934 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 192,080 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 527; villages per square mile, 2·3; houses per square mile, 110; persons per village, 234; persons per house, 4·7. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 499,722; females, 419,026; proportion of males, 54·3 per cent. Classified according to age, there were (with the like exception), under twelve years—males, 162,005; females, 134,804; total, 296,809, or 32·31 per cent. of the population. As regards religious distinctions, the District still remains essentially Hindu, in spite of its long subjection to Muhammadan rule. The Hindus were returned in 1872 at 816,733, or 88·9 per cent., while the Musalmáns numbered 101,538, or 11·1 per cent. There were 477 Christians. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans numbered 85,987 persons. The Rájputs, descendants of the original colonists, and still the leading landowners in the northern half of the District, were returned at 63,769 persons. South of the Káli Nadi, in the tract formerly subject to the Oudh Wazírs, the Thákurs were for the most part dispossessed by the severe fiscal exactions of the Lucknow court. The other principal tribes include the Baniás (15,717), Ahírs (86,372), Chámárs (94,274), Káyasths (15,378), and Kurmís (30,884). The District contains 6 towns with a population exceeding 5000—namely, FARRUKHABAD, 79,204; FATEHGARH, 13,439; CHHIBRAMAU, 5444; KAIMGANJ, 10,323; KANAUJ, 17,093; and SHAMSABAD, 8710. Farrukhábád is thus by far the largest and most important town in the District, being the main centre of commerce and communications.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1744 square miles, all but 86 square miles pay Government revenue. Of the assessed area, thus amounting to 1658 square miles, 372 are uncultivable, 264 cultivable waste, and 1021 actually under tillage. The usual agricultural seasons of the Doáb prevail throughout—the *kharíf*, or autumn crops, being sown in June and harvested in October or November; while the *rabí*, or spring crops, are sown in November and reaped in March or April. Cotton, rice, *bájra*, *joár*, and *moth* form the staples of the autumn harvest; while wheat, barley, oats, vetch, and peas are the spring products. The cultivation of potatoes has been introduced, especially in the neighbourhood of Farrukhábád itself, and the smaller towns of Káimganj, Shamsábád, and Chhibramau. In the villages near the city, the system of a triple crop (one of them, potatoes) is in full working. The cultivation of sugar-cane gives rise to an exceptional rotation of crops. When the autumn harvest has been gathered in November, the land remains fallow, and undergoes frequent

ploughings for the next sixteen months, and the cane is planted in the second following March. It is not cut till January or February of the second year. Cultivators with rights of occupancy have a fairly comfortable livelihood; tenants-at-will pay heavier rents and clear a much smaller margin of profits. Occupancy tenants hold 64 per cent. of the whole cultivated area; and where the proprietors do not themselves till their lands, they obtain the best plots, which the landlords would otherwise have kept as homestead. The average rent rates per acre ruled as follows in 1877:—Resident tenants, 7s. 11d.; non-resident, 6s. 7d. The principal landowning tribes are the Thákurs, Bráhmans, and Musalmáns, who held 36, 20, and 21 per cent. of the District respectively in 1873. Coolies and unskilled town labourers received $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to $3\frac{3}{4}$d. per diem in 1877; agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to 3d.; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. The prices-current of food grains ruled as follows in 1876:—Wheat, 4s. 4d. per cwt.; rice, 16s. per cwt.; *joár*, 3s. per cwt.; *bájra*, 3s. 1d. per cwt. These prices are nearly double of those which prevailed in 1803.

Natural Calamities.—The famines of 1770 and 1783 doubtless affected Farrukhábád, as they did the whole of the North-Western Provinces, but the existing accounts are too scanty to admit of separate estimates for each District. In subsequent famines, Farrukhábád suffered severely in the four worst years, 1803-04, 1815-16, 1825-26, and 1837-38. The area affected by minor scarcities did not extend so far northward as to embrace the *parganás* then included under the present District; and the southern portion of the existing territory, originally incorporated with Cawnpore and Etáwah, has always been much more liable to dearth than the northern region. In the disastrous season of 1837-38, Farrukhábád suffered with great severity, nearly one-fourth of the cultivated area being abandoned. In August 1837, relief measures were adopted, reaching their maximum in March 1838. The famine of 1860 was confined to the Upper Doáb and Rohilkhand, and scarcely affected this District, except by raising the price of grain. The last scarcity, in 1868-69, occasioned considerable distress in Farrukhábád for a short period, but the dearth rapidly passed away. Relief operations continued from February to October 1869.

Commerce and Trade.—The crops produced in the District barely suffice for local needs, and no surplus for export exists; on the contrary, grain is largely imported from Oudh and Rohilkhand. The receipts at the ferries, *gháts*, and bridges have increased fivefold since 1844, a fact which shows how enormously the traffic of the District has widened during that interval. The city of Farrukhábád contains a few native banking establishments; but their operations do not extend to the villages of the District, where the Bania money-lender and the

zamíndár still retain the exclusive power of making cash advances, and keep a firm hold over the indebted peasantry. The prevalent rates of interest in 1877 were 18 to 37 per cent. on personal security, 6 to 15 per cent. on jewels or other pledges, and 10 to 24 per cent. on mortgages of landed property. Fatehgarh is noted for its manufacture of tents. The Grand Trunk Road forms the chief connecting link between Farrukhábád and the surrounding country, keeping up the communication with the east and north-west. The line of road passing into Rohilkhand crosses the Ganges at Fatehgarh, where a bridge of boats suffices for the requirements of traffic during the greater part of the year; but interruption is often caused in the rains by the substitution of ferry-boats for a standing bridge. The District has been injuriously affected by its distance from the railway system. When the Grand Trunk Road and the river Ganges formed the main channels of commerce, the situation of Farrukhábád admirably adapted it for the trade in which its merchants were chiefly engaged; but when the railway offered a new and better outlet for the produce of the North-West, the course of traffic deserted the city for towns more favourably situated on the modern route. Internal communication is well maintained by an excellent system of unmetalled roads, while abundant feeders in every direction connect the various villages with each other and with the main thoroughfares.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Collector-Magistrate, two Joint Magistrates, an Assistant and two Deputy Magistrates, besides the ordinary fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. Farrukhábád is the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, whose jurisdiction is entirely confined to the District. The whole amount of revenue, imperial, municipal, and local, raised within the District in 1876, was £197,229, or 4s. 1¼d. per head on an estimated population (corrected to date) of 955,497 persons. Of this sum, £124,673, or more than five-eighths, were derived from the land tax. The last land settlement was commenced in 1863, and completed in 1874; it resulted in an increase of revenue by £12,127. Farrukhábád contains two places of confinement for criminals—the central prison and the District jail, both of which are situated at Fatehgarh. The central jail had a daily average of 1265 prisoners in 1875, all of whom were males; the average cost per inmate amounted to £4, 5s. 3d., and the average earnings of each prisoner to 6s. The District jail contained in the same year a daily average of 371 prisoners, of whom 21 were females; the average cost per head amounted to £3, 11s. 6d., and the average earnings of each prisoner to 10s. The total strength of the District regular police force was 943; and the cost of their maintenance was £10,279. These figures give an average of 1 policeman to every 1·79 square mile of area and every 974 of the population; while the cost

of maintenance amounted to £5, 16s. per square mile and 2¾d. per head. There are 15 imperial and 12 local post offices; and the Government maintains a telegraph station at Fatehgarh. There were, in 1875, 320 schools, with a joint roll of 7507 pupils; showing 1 school to every 5·45 square miles, and 8·1 scholars for every thousand of the population. The city of Farrukhábád has a *zilá* school, and Anglo-vernacular schools are established at Fatehgarh, Káimganj, Shamsábád, and Chhibramau. The total cost of Government education in 1876 was £3416. The District contains only one municipality, Fatehgarh-cum-Farrukhábád. Its revenue amounted in 1875-76 to £8177; from taxes, £6957, or 1s. 10⅝d. per head of population (74,225) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—Farrukhábád bears the reputation of being one of the healthiest Districts in the Doáb. The general elevation is considerable, the climate is dry, and the country possesses remarkable freedom from epidemics. The trans-Gangetic *parganás*, however, must be excepted as low-lying and damp. The annual mean temperature was 77° F. in 1870, and 84° F. in 1871; the lowest monthly mean being 58° in January, and the highest 93° in June. The average annual rainfall for the eleven years ending 1871 amounted to 29·4 inches; the maximum being 47·2 inches in 1867, and the minimum 12·1 inches in 1868 (the year of scarcity). Fevers prevail in August and September. The total number of deaths recorded in 1875 was 20,609, or 22·43 per thousand of the population; the average death-rate for the previous six years was returned at 16·09 per thousand. Four charitable dispensaries, at Farrukhábád, Fatehgarh, Káimganj, and Mírán-ki-Sarái, afforded relief in 1875 to 20,521 persons, including 789 in-door patients.

Farrukhábád.—Municipal city in Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 1411 acres; pop. (1872), 79,204. Situated in lat. 27° 23′ 55″ N., and long. 79° 36′ 50″ E., two or three miles from the right or west bank of the Ganges; distant from Cawnpore 83 miles north-west, and from Etáwah 62 miles north-east. It is a handsome and well-built town, with many of its streets shaded by avenues of trees. A mud fort, once the residence of the Nawáb, commands an extensive view of the Ganges valley. The trade was formerly considerable, but has fallen off of late years, owing to the diversion of commerce by the opening of the railway system. *Zilá* school; dispensary; headquarters at the adjacent British fort of FATEHGARH. For early history and Mutiny narrative, see FARRUKHABAD DISTRICT. Forms with Fatehgarh a municipality; revenue in 1875-76, £8177—from taxes, £6957, or 1s. 10⅝d. per head of population (74,225) within municipal limits.

Farrukhnagar.—Municipal town in Gurgáon District, Punjab

Lat. 28° 25′ N., long. 76° 51′ 30″ E.; area, 99 acres; pop. (1868), 10,631, being 3409 Hindus, 2523 Muhammadans, and 4699 'others.' Founded by Nawáb Faujdár Khán, in the reign of the Emperor Farrukh Siyyar (A.D. 1713); conquered by the Játs of Bhartpur; bestowed by Lord Lake in 1803 upon Nawáb Muzaffar Khán, whose grandson was hanged for rebellion in 1857. Regranted to Sardár Tafuzzul Hussain Khán as a reward for services during the Mutiny, and now held by his son on *istimrári* tenure. Extensive export of salt, produced upon the banks of the Najafgarh *jhíl;* surrounding country being extremely sterile, the return trade embraces all the necessaries of life. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £727, or 1s. 4⅜d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Fatehábád. — Municipal town in Hissár District, Punjab, and headquarters of a *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 29° 31′ N., long. 75° 30′ E.; pop. (1868), 3175; distant from Hissár 30 miles north-west. Founded by the Emperor Firoz Sháh, and named after his son Fateh Khán. Held at the beginning of the present century by the Bhatti chieftain, Khán Bahádur Khán. North of the town runs a cut from the river Ghaggar, constructed by Firoz Sháh, and still used for purposes of irrigation. Considerable manufacture of country cloth; export of grain and *ghí* to Bíkaner (Bickaneer) and the Bágar territory; brisk trade in leather. *Tahsíli*, police station, *sarái*, staging bungalow. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £82, or 6¼d. per head of population (3079) within municipal limits.

Fatehábád.—*Tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the south bank of the river Jumna (Jamuná). Area, 204 square miles, of which 142 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 89,159; land revenue, £18,150; total Government revenue, £20,188; rental paid by cultivators, £30,832; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 9½d. Lat. 29° 15′ to 29° 34′ N.; long. 75° 16′ to 75° 51′ E.

Fatehganj.—Village and battle-field in Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces, lying in lat. 28° 4′ N., and long. 79° 42′ E., on the route from Bareilly to Sháhjahánpur, 23 miles south-east of the former town. Founded by Shujá-ud-daulá, Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, in commemoration of the British victory over the Rohillás in 1774, which gave him possession of the greater portion of Rohilkhand. Háfiz Rahmat Khán, the Rohillá chieftain, fell in this engagement. Thornton describes the village as an insignificant hamlet, surrounded by a mud wall.

Fatehganj. — Village in Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces; famous as the scene of a British victory over the Rohillás in 1796. Lat. 28° 28′ N., long. 79° 24′ E. A monument marks the burial-place of the Company's troops, and a carved tomb with minarets covers the remains of two Rohillá chiefs.

Fatehgarh.—Administrative headquarters of Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces. Adjoins the native city of FARRUKHABAD 3 miles to the eastward. Lat. 27° 22′ 55″ N., long. 79° 40′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 13,439. Military station for the District; Government maintains an important gun-carriage factory within the old fort. The cantonment was first established in 1777, and formed an extreme outpost against the Marhattá power under Perron, and the doubtful fidelity of the Oudh Nawábs. Holkár attacked the town in 1804, but was defeated and driven into precipitate flight. Central and District jails, Government telegraph office, Anglo-vernacular school, charitable dispensary. Forms with Farrukhábád a joint municipality; revenue in 1875-76, £8177—from taxes, £6957, or 1s. 10⅜d. per head of population (74,225) within municipal limits.

Fatehjang.—*Tahsíl* of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying along the banks of the river Indus, between 33° 9′ 30″ and 33° 44′ 30″ N. lat., and between 72° 25′ 30″ and 73° 3′ 30″ E. long.

Fatehkhelda.—Town in Buldána District, Berar; situated in lat. 20° 11′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 27′ E., on the small river Bhogáwati, an affluent of the Penganga. Pop. (1867), 3108. The original name of the town was Shakarkhelda, but it was changed to Fatehkhelda ('Field of victory') in commemoration of a decisive success gained here by the Nizám in 1724 over Mubáriz Khán, who was slain on the field of battle. Since the sack of the town by Sindhia's troops in 1803, before Assaye, and the great famine of that year, Fatehkhelda has fallen into decay; and a large extent of ground is covered with ruined habitations.

Fatehpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 26′ 17″ and 26° 12′ 50″ N. lat., and between 80° 16′ 39″ and 81° 23′ E. long. Area, 1585 square miles; population (1872), 663,877. Fatehpur forms a District of the Allahábád Division. It is bounded on the north by the Ganges, on the west by Cawnpore, on the south by the Jumna, and on the east by Allahábád. The administrative headquarters are at FATEHPUR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Fatehpur forms a portion of the Doáb, or great alluvial plain between the Ganges and the Jumna (Jamuná), being only separated from their point of junction by a triangular tongue of land, which belongs to the adjoining District of ALLAHABAD. Its main features do not differ from those common to the whole monotonous level enclosed by the two great rivers of Upper India. It consists for the most part of a highly cultivated plain, whose soil is composed of the loam, silt, and clay deposited in earlier periods by the drainage of the Himálayan slopes. The central portion presents the appearance of an unbroken level, only relieved in places by barren

and sharply defined *usár* plains, the saline efflorescence of which glistens like hoar-frost in the morning sun, or thickly studded in the neighbourhood of the villages with large and leafy groves of mango and *mahuá* trees. A ridge of higher land, forming the watershed of the District, runs through it from east to west, at an average distance of 5 miles from the Ganges. The country is thus divided into two declivities — the one, only a few miles in breadth, sloping rapidly down toward the Ganges on the northern border; the other, with a stretch of some 15 or 20 miles, falling gradually southward till it ends in the wilder valley of the Jumna. The portions of these plains which abut on the two great rivers are seamed in every direction by deep ravines, especially on the banks of the Jumna and its tributary streams. In the extreme west of the District, three large water-courses may be considered to attain the dignity of rivers. The Pándu flows northward into the Ganges; the Rind and the Nún swell the waters of its great confluent. The tract enclosed between the Jumna and the two last-named streams is one tangled mass of ravines, whose scenery is often picturesque and varied. The main channels are fed by innumerable rivulets, each of which cuts its way through beds of nodular limestone into the central gorge; while the sides are clothed with matted jungle, in whose recesses lurk wild boars, wolves, and leopards. Shallow lakes (*jhíls*) abound in the midland portion of the District, which is not drained by any considerable stream. They are generally temporary, being filled during the rains, and drying up in January or February. As long as the water stands in them, wild-fowl of every kind may be found in abundance; and during the hot weather nílgái and antelope take refuge in the dry beds, when driven by the harvest from their ordinary shelter among the standing crops. As a whole, the western region is the most cut up by ravines and covered with *bábul* jungle; the central tract is more generally cultivated, though interspersed with frequent patches of useless *usár;* and the eastern slope, near the Allahábád border, is one unbroken reach of smiling and prosperous tillage.

History.—In the earliest times, Fatehpur was inhabited by the Bhíls, a tribe of non-Aryan aborigines, one of whose kings is mentioned in the *Rámáyana* as the host of Ráma. At a later date, it appears to have formed part of the wide dominions ruled over by the Rájás of Argal, whose territories stretched from the borders of Kanauj to the gates of Allahábád. After their fall, it passed into the hands of the Thákur Rájás of Asothár, in whose possession it remained until its conquest by the Patháns. Like the rest of the Doáb, it was overrun in 1194 A.D. by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghorí, and became thenceforth a portion of the Delhi kingdom. In 1376, the fief of Fatehpur was made over, with Kora in Allahábád and Mahoba in Hamírpur, to the care of a

Viceroy known as the Málik-ul-Shark. Order was successfully maintained by this officer during the terrible raids of Timur, and the country enjoyed comparative security throughout the troublous period which preceded the final establishment of Mughal rule. Bábar conquered the District about 1529; but it still remained a stronghold of the Pathán resistance, and was the centre of the reactionary movement under Sher Sháh, by which Humáyun was driven for a while from the newly-founded throne of his father. During the slow decline of the Delhi dynasty, Fatehpur was entrusted to the Governor of Oudh; but in 1736, it was overrun by the Marhattás, on the invitation of Ajaju, a disaffected landholder of Kora. The Marhattás retained possession of the District until 1750, when it was wrested from them by the Patháns of Fatehgarh. Three years later, Safdar Jang, the practically independent Wazír of Oudh, reconquered the country for his own benefit. In 1759, the Wazír threw off his nominal allegiance to Delhi, and was acknowledged by the British as a sovereign prince in 1765. By the treaty of that year, Fatehpur was handed over to the titular Emperor, Sháh Alam; but when, in 1774, the Emperor threw himself into the hands of the Marhattás, his eastern territories were considered to have escheated, and the British sold them for 50 *lákhs* of rupees to the Nawáb Wazír. As the Oudh Government was in a chronic state of arrears with regard to the payment of its stipulated tribute, a new arrangement was effected in 1801, by which the Nawáb ceded Allahábád and Kora to the English, in lieu of all outstanding claims. Fatehpur at first was divided between the Districts of Allahábád and Cawnpore; but in 1814, a separate charge was erected at Bithúr on the Ganges, which was transferred eleven years later to Fatehpur. The benefits of settled government were nowhere more conspicuous than here. In 1798, the District was described as a waste, whose ruined towns bore lamentable marks of former prosperity. But some half century later, it is spoken of as a boundless garden, in which fields of sugar-cane, cotton, poppy, and cereals alternated with beautiful groves of mango or tamarind, overshading the village mosques and tanks. No event of interest occurred after the introduction of British rule, until the Mutiny of 1857. On the 6th of June, news of the Cawnpore outbreak arrived at the station. On the 8th, a treasure guard returning from Allahábád proved mutinous; and next day the mob rose, burnt the houses, and plundered all the property of the European residents. The civil officers escaped to Bánda, except the judge who was murdered. On the 28th of June, the fourteen fugitives from Cawnpore landed at Shiurájpur in this District, and were all killed but four, who escaped by swimming to the Oudh shore. The District remained in the hands of the rebels throughout the month; but on the 30th, General Neill sent off Major Renaud's column from Allahábád

to Cawnpore. On the 11th of July, General Havelock's force joined Renaud's at Khaga, and next day they defeated the rebels at Bilanda. They then attacked and shelled Fatehpur, drove out the rebels, and took possession of the place. On the 15th, Havelock advanced to Aung and drove the enemy back on the Pándu Nadi. There a second battle was fought the same day, and the insurgents were driven out of the District in full flight on Cawnpore. We could not, however, retain possession of the District except just along the Grand Trunk Road; and order was not finally re-established till after the fall of Lucknow and the return of Lord Clyde's army to Cawnpore, when the Gwalior mutineers were finally driven off.

Population.—Fatehpur is one of the Districts where agriculture and population appear to have reached their utmost limits. In 1865, the Census showed a population of 681,053, being a steady increase upon the returns of 1848 and 1853. In 1872, the Census gave a total population of 663,877, or a decrease of 17,176 persons in seven years. But there is no reason for suspecting any actual depopulation, and it is believed that one of the two last returns is in error. The area on which the enumeration in the last-named year was taken, was 1585 square miles; number of villages, 2741; houses, 152,777. From these data the following averages may be calculated:—Persons per square mile, 419; villages per square mile, 1·7; houses per square mile, 96; persons per village, 242; persons per house, 4·3. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 345,533; females, 318,282; proportion of males, 52 per cent. Classified according to age, there were (with the like omission), under 12 years—males, 105,230; females, 92,712; total, 197,942, or 29·81 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, Fatehpur, like the rest of the Doáb, remains essentially Hindu, in spite of its long subjection to a Muhammadan power. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 593,256 Hindus, as against 70,554 Musalmáns, the relative proportions being 89·4 and 10·6 per cent. respectively. The number of Bráhmans is 74,388, most of whom are landholders or domestic servants. A few, however, are to be found at Shiurájpur and other places of pilgrimage along the Ganges, as superintendents of the religious bathing, priests in the temples, or guides and caterers for the pilgrims. The Rájputs number 44,566 persons. They are generally well-to-do landlords; but as cultivators, they are reputed quarrelsome and lazy, and they do not make good tenants. There are a few villages owned by Káyasth auction-purchasers, and tilled by Thákur peasants, the former proprietors; in which it is said that the landlord dare not show his face from year to year, and that the agent can only collect the rents at great personal risk. Banias number 21,842, engaged, as usual, in commercial pursuits. These three tribes form the upper and more prosperous classes. The

remainder of the Hindus, numbering in all 452,460 persons, are lumped together under the general head of 'other castes.' As a rule they are darker, shorter, and more sparely built than the higher castes, besides often betraying in their features other traces of aboriginal descent. The Kúrmís and Káchhis, who together amount to 89,044, are industrious and diligent tenants, the agricultural backbone of the District. They pay higher rents than any other tribes, and pay them easily. The Ahírs, Lodhs, Arakhs, and Pásís, who number in all 162,907 persons, are a turbulent and quarrelsome set, but sometimes make fair cultivators under Thákur masters. It is from them that the criminal class is most frequently recruited; and they also furnish a large proportion of the village watchmen and protective servants. The Kewats (boatmen and fishers) and the Garáriyas (shepherds and herdsmen) number together 42,490. The Musalmáns are found chiefly in the north-eastern portion of the District. As a rule, they are more prosperous and energetic than the Hindus, a large number being small *zamíndárs*, but in the towns many have been reduced to great poverty. In Tappa Jár *parganá* there is a considerable body of half-converted Rájputs, who still describe themselves by their caste title. There was only one town in 1872 with a population exceeding 5000—namely, FATEHPUR, which had 19,879 inhabitants. The total agricultural population included 344,748 persons, or 51·9 per cent. of the whole.

Agriculture.—The District contains 869 square miles of cultivated land, and a very small margin of the available area now remains untilled. The ravine-clad country of the western *parganás* is of course incapable of cultivation, while a few *usár* plains break in upon the ploughed fields of the central portion; but the greater part of the soil is cultivated up to a very high point. The fertile black alluvial mould, known as *már*, occurs in several places along the Jumna, and there is a strip of similar deposit between the high and low water mark of the Ganges, on which the best crops of the District are raised. The harvests are those common to the whole Doáb. The *kharíf* or autumn crops are sown after the first rains in June, and ripen in October or November. They consist of rice, cereals, and millets; *joár* and *bájra* being the principal staples. As soon as the rains are over and the water has drained off the land, the wheat, barley, gram, oats, peas, and other *rabí* crops are sown, about the end of October, and these ripen from March to May. Autumn and spring harvests are not generally taken off the same lands within the twelve months; but if the autumn rice crop has been harvested early, the land may be made to produce a *rabí* crop as well. Manure and irrigation are both employed for the spring harvest, but are seldom applied to the *kharíf*. The *jhíls* or shallow lakes of the central *parganás* are of great value for purposes of irrigation. The *rabí* and the rice crops entirely depend upon them.

If the rainfall is scanty, the *jhíls* are drained dry by the end of November, the cultivators working night and day in relays to raise the water by means of leathern baskets. The condition of the peasantry is far from comfortable, and indebtedness is still their almost universal state. The modes of tenure are those of the adjoining country. The caste *pancháyats* have very much the character of guilds or trades-unions. The Kúrmí and Káchhí cultivators in *parganás* Ekdála and Dháta have been known to unite together to resist enhancements of their rents. They then pay a fixed rate per plough or per field towards a general defence fund, from which are defrayed the expenses of defending actions brought by *zamíndárs*. Blacksmiths, masons, and carpenters often enforce very strict labour rules among their communities; an artisan is not allowed to work for lower wages or longer hours than his fellows, and piece-work is discouraged as much as possible. Wages ruled as follows in 1877:—Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d.; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s.; boys and girls get about one-half the wages of adults. The following were the average prices-current of food grains in 1876:—Wheat, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; rice, 14 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. per cwt.; *joár*, 44 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 6d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 35 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 2d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Fatehpur has not suffered so severely from drought of late years as many neighbouring Districts. Famines from this cause occurred in 1770, in 1783, and in 1837. In 1860, scarcely any rain fell in the Doáb, but the worst distress never reached its lower extremity, and Fatehpur escaped with comparative immunity. In 1864, although only 16 inches of rain fell, and the rice crops suffered greatly, there was no actual famine. In 1868 the rain, though more copious, was badly distributed, and with the exception of a single heavy downpour in September, none fell after the middle of July. The solitary shower, however, prevented the crops from utterly perishing; but the autumn harvest was very poor, and as the winter passed away without rain, it became evident that the spring crops would fail in all high or dry places where the land could not be irrigated. In January 1869, relief works were started on a large scale in the southern *parganás*, and about 200 miles of raised roads were constructed. This gave employment to the starving poor till the spring crops were cut in April; and the worst pressure was thus relieved. There has been no severe distress in the District since that date, although in 1870 heavy floods did a great deal of damage to the autumn crops.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is mainly in agricultural produce, and is concentrated in the towns of Fatehpur and Naráini. Bindki, however, is the great grain and cattle mart of the District, where dealers from Bundelkhand and the Doáb meet to

exchange their respective produce. Most of the Bundelkhand grain is sent off from the Mauhár railway station, 5 miles north of Bindki. Brass and copper work is turned out in considerable quantities at Khajuha and Kora; and the latter town has likewise some trade in whips and skins. Saltpetre is manufactured to a large extent in the northern portion of the District, from the saline deposits of the *usár* plains; a good deal of refined salt is also made, but only surreptitiously, as the manufacture is prohibited. The means of communication are ample. The East Indian Railway main line runs through the heart of the District, with five stations, and a total length within its boundaries of 55 miles. The Grand Trunk Road also traverses the District from side to side, with a length of about 60 miles. Other excellent roads connect Fatehpur with Oudh, Bundelkhand, and the Doáb generally. The Ganges and Jumna afford water communication along the whole northern and southern frontiers. They still carry a large part of the heavy traffic in cotton, grain, and stone, though of course the railway and the Grand Trunk Road have seriously diminished its dimensions. The only fair of any importance is that held at Shiurájpur, on the Ganges, in the first week of November. Its object is primarily religious, but a good deal of business is transacted side by side with the bathing in the sacred river. From 20,000 to 50,000 people often attend it. Horses, cattle, whips, shoes, and toys are the chief articles sold.

Administration.—The District staff usually consists of a Collector-Magistrate, a Joint Magistrate, an Assistant, and an uncovenanted Deputy Collector. The whole amount of revenue—imperial, municipal, and local—raised in the District in 1876, was £165,409, or 4s. $0\frac{7}{8}$d. per head of the population. In 1875, the regular police amounted to 522 men, and the cost of their maintenance was £6732. These figures give an average of 1 policeman to every 3 square miles and every 1272 of the population. The expenditure upon the force is equal to an average of £4, 4s. per square mile and $2\frac{1}{3}$d. per inhabitant. The regular police were supplemented by 1898 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), maintained at a cost of £6898. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of persons and property consisted of 2420 officers and men, being 1 man to every 0·6 square mile of the area and to every 274 of the population. This force was maintained at a gross cost of £13,630, being at the rate of £8, 11s. $11\frac{7}{8}$d. per square mile and of $4\frac{7}{8}$d. per inhabitant. During the same year, the Fatehpur jail contained a daily average of 402 prisoners, of whom 382 were males and 20 females. The average cost per prisoner was £3, 6s. $7\frac{1}{2}$d., and the average earnings of each inmate were 10s. The District contains 22 post offices, of which 14 are imperial and 8 local. The Government has no telegraph station in Fatehpur, but there is a railway telegraph office at each station on the East Indian line. Education was carried on in this

District in 1875 by 260 schools, with 6416 scholars; being an average of 1 school to every 6·09 square miles, and of 9·6 scholars to every thousand of the population. Six of the schools are for girls. The total cost of the educational establishment was £2662, of which £610 was paid from provincial revenue and £2052 from local funds. For fiscal and administrative purposes, Fatehpur is subdivided into 6 *tahsíls* and 13 *parganás*. In 1876, the land revenue amounted to £134,943. The District contains only one municipality—Fatehpur town. In 1875-76, its total revenue was £1314, while its gross expenditure was £1196. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 1½d. per head of the municipal population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Fatehpur is that of an ordinary Doáb District; but from its easterly position, the west winds do not reach it with such force in the hot weather as they display at Agra and the adjoining towns. The surface is somewhat marshy, and the numerous shallow lakes (*jhíls*) render the atmosphere damper than that of the Upper Doáb. The humidity of the climate makes it rather feverish, but the natives do not consider it unhealthy, especially when compared with the malarious flats and valleys of Bundelkhand to the south. Europeans enjoy moderate health; and the once notorious headquarters at Fatehpur have now been rendered safe by the drainage of a large swamp, which formerly stretched to the west of the station. During the winter months the climate is most enjoyable, but towards the end of March the weather gets rapidly hotter, and in June the thermometer often remains at 96° or 98° F. day and night. The average annual rainfall of the 17 years from 1859 to 1875 was 35·7 inches. The maximum for the 17 years was 53·5 inches in 1870, and the minimum was 16·3 inches in 1864. The slight rainfall of the latter year was, however, so evenly distributed, that drought was not felt so severely as in 1868, when 18·6 inches fell, but so irregularly as to cause a partial famine during the following winter. The total number of deaths recorded in 1875 was 11,870, or 17·88 per thousand of the population. The mean ratio of recorded deaths per thousand during the previous six years was 20·48. There is one charitable dispensary in the District, at Fatehpur town; in 1875, it afforded relief to a total number of 5273 patients.

Fatehpur.—*Tahsíl* of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 346 square miles, of which 167 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 160,933; land revenue, £29,614; total Government revenue, £32,581; rental paid by cultivators, £45,370; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 8d.

Fatehpur. — Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; lies in lat. 25° 55′ 20″ N., long. 80° 53′ 10″ E., on the road from Allahábád to Cawnpore,

70 miles north-west of the former and 50 miles south-east of the latter. Pop. (1872), 19,879. The town lays claim to considerable antiquity, and Bábar mentions it in his memoirs. The tomb of Almas Alí Khán, a eunuch, and minister of the Oudh Nawábs at the end of the last century, forms the chief architectural ornament of the principal street. The Jamá Masjid, or great mosque, and the mosque of Hákím Abdul Hasan of Kora, also possess considerable interest. For the Mutiny narrative, see FATEHPUR DISTRICT. Station on the East Indian Railway main line. Telegraph office, District jail, administrative offices, charitable dispensary. Trade in hides, soap, and grain. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1314; from taxes, £1100, or 1s. 1½d. per head of population (19,431) within municipal limits.

Fatehpur.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Bára Bánki District, Oudh; lying between 26° 58′ and 27° 21′ N. lat., and between 80° 58′ and 81° 36′ E. long.; bounded on the north by Mahmudábád *tahsíl* of Sítápur, on the east by Hisámpur *tahsíl* of Bahráich, on the south by Bára Bánki *tahsíl*, and on the west by Malihábád *tahsíl* of Lucknow. Population, according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent transfers—Hindus, 258,791; Muhammadans, 41,633; total, 300,424, viz. 157,924 males and 142,500 females. Number of villages or towns, 690; average density of population, 570 per square mile. The *tahsíl* comprises the 6 *parganás* of Fatehpur, Kursi, Muhammadpur, Bhitauli, Rámnagar, and Bádo Sarái.

Fatehpur.—*Parganá* in *tahsíl* of same name, Bára Bánki District, Oudh. The original seat of the Khánzáda family, to which the great *tálukdárs* of Mahmudábád, Bhatwámau, and Bilahrá belong; the Shaikhzádas of Fatehpur are connections of the family of the same name, once so powerful in Lucknow. The *parganá* is picturesquely situated on the high lands above the Gogra (Ghagrá), between Dewa on the north and Mahmudábád on the south. Area, 154 square miles, or 98,352 acres, of which 65,358 acres are cultivated and 13,186 are cultivable waste. Government land revenue, £13,219; average incidence, 4s. 0½d. per acre of cultivated, or 3s. 4⅜d. per acre of cultivable area. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 76,905; Muhammadans, 16,888; total, 93,793, viz. 48,980 males and 44,813 females. Number of villages or towns, 251; average density of population, 609 per square mile.

Fatehpur.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; 15 miles north-north-east of the headquarters town, at the junction of the Daryábád, Rámnagar, Bára Bánki, and Sítápur roads. Lat. 27° 10′ 15″ N., long. 81° 15′ 5″ E. A town of considerable importance during the days of Mughal supremacy. Many large Muhammadan buildings exist, but all in a state of decay. The principal of these is an *imámbárá*, said to have been built by Maulvi Karámat Alí, an officer of high rank at the court of Nasír-ud-dín Haidar, but now only used during the *muharram* festival. There

is also an old *masjíd*, said to have been built in the time of Akbar; the present owner of the ground attached to it holds under a *sanad* or deed of gift, purporting to have been granted by Akbar himself. There are also many Hindu temples. Pop. (1869), Muhammadans, 3927; Hindus, 3267; total, 7194. Besides a well-attended daily *bázár*, a special bi-weekly market is also held, the principal trade being in grain brought from the trans-Gogra District, and in English cloth. Coarse country cloth is manufactured by a numerous colony of weavers. Police station, revenue court, and well-attended Anglo-vernacular school.

Fatehpur.—Village in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 38′ N., and long. 78° 34′ E., on the outer slope of the low limestone hills which shut in the Denwa valley, and upon the road from Bánkherí to Pachmarhi. A line of semi-independent Gond Rájás held the surrounding country from the days of the Mandla dynasty; and its present representatives still live at Fatehpur, and hold large estates in the neighbourhood. Tántia Topí passed this way to the Sátpura Hills in 1858.

Fatehpur Chaurási.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh, lying along the banks of the Ganges, south of Bángarmau, and north of Safipur *parganá*; colonised about 250 years ago by Janwár Rájputs, who ousted the aboriginal Thatheras. The last chief, who held the whole *parganá* as his estate, rebelled in the Mutiny of 1857. He seized the English fugitives who were escaping by boat from Fatehgarh, and delivered them up to the Nána, by whom they were massacred on the Cawnpore parade. He died from the effects of a wound received in an attack on Unao; one of his sons was hanged, and the other fled. The family estates were confiscated and given to strangers. The *parganá* possesses varied scenery, being dotted with picturesque groves, and intersected by channels leading to the Ganges. Indian corn of the best description, and barley of a fair quality, are the principal crops. Area, 90 square miles, of which 49 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £6258, or an average assessment of 2s. 2¼d. per acre. Land is held under the different tenures as follows:—*Tálukdárí*, 25,966 acres; *zamíndárí*, 25,806 acres; *pattidárí*, 5442 acres; and Government, 308 acres. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 40,624; Musalmáns, 1087; total, 41,711, viz. 22,038 males and 19,673 females. Number of villages or townships, 90; average density of population, 463 per square mile; 4 market villages.

Fatehpur Chaurási.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 6 miles west of Safipur, and 25 north-west of the headquarters town. Said to have been held successively by the Thatheras, a colony of Sayyid emigrants, and the Janwárs, each of whom ousted the previous holders by force. The estates of the last holder were confiscated for rebellion in 1857. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 2530, of whom 564 are Bráhmans and 132

Kshattriyas; Muhammadans, 273; total, 2803. Five Hindu temples. Bi-weekly *bázár*, and small annual fair on the occasion of the *Dasahara* festival.

Fatehpur Síkri.—*Tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the western or trans-Jumna portion of the District. Area, 167 square miles, of which 137 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 84,085; land revenue, £18,169; total Government revenue, £20,088; rental paid by cultivators, £31,437; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 4¾d.

Fatehpur Síkri.—Municipal town and a former capital of the Mughal Empire; situated in Agra District, North-Western Provinces; administrative headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Pop. (1872), 6878. Lat. 27° 5′ 35″ N., long. 77° 42′ 18″ E. Founded by the Emperor Akbar in 1570 A.D., with a view to its establishment as the permanent seat of the Mughal court; and enriched by magnificent architectural works in the time of Akbar and Jahángír; it was abandoned within fifty years of its foundation, in favour of Delhi. It chiefly consists of a vast expanse of ruins, enclosed by a high stone wall, some 5 miles in circuit. The great mosque is approached by a magnificent gateway, known as the Buland Darwáza, which surmounts a splendid flight of steps, and gives access to the Dargah or sacred quadrangle, a courtyard some 500 feet square, surrounded by a lofty cloister and a range of cells for Fakírs or pilgrims. The quadrangle contains a large mosque with three handsome domes of white marble, besides the tomb of Shaikh Salím Chishti, a Musalmán ascetic, through whose intercession Akbar obtained an heir in the person of Prince Salím, afterwards known as the Emperor Jahángír. The tomb consists of an elaborately carved shrine in white marble, enclosing a sarcophagus within a screen of lattice-work, inlaid with mother-of-pearl. North of the Dargah stand the houses of Abúl Fazl and his brother Fáizí, now used as a boys' school. Eastward is the principal palace, containing the apartments of Akbar's chief wife. It consists of a spacious courtyard, surrounded by a continuous gallery, from which rise rows of buildings on the north and south, roofed with slabs of blue enamel. A lofty and richly carved gate gives access to a terrace paved with sandstone flags, and formerly enclosed by a colonnade. On this terrace stand, among other noble buildings, the so-called houses of Bírbal and of the 'Christian lady.' Bírbal's palace, which modern antiquaries assign with greater probability to his daughter, is noticeable for its massive materials and the lavish minuteness of its detail. The 'Christian lady's house' belonged, according to tradition, to Bíbí Mariam, a Portuguese wife of Akbar. Some of the paintings are supposed to represent Christian scenes, but the Musalmáns have nearly obliterated all traces of these offensive

pictures. Great doubts, however, have been cast upon the traditions respecting the 'Christian lady,' who was probably a Hindu princess, the mother of Jahángír. Among the other architectural masterpieces, the Diwán-i-Khás and the Diwán-i-ám, or Council Chamber and Hall of Judgment, especially attract the attention of visitors. The Elephant Gate contains two massive figures of the animals from which it derives its name; but their heads were removed by the Muhammadan bigotry of Aurangzeb. Close by towers the Hiran Minár, a pile some 70 feet in height, covered with enamelled imitations of elephants' tusks, which are commonly believed by the populace to consist of solid ivory. Numerous other splendid buildings, dating back in every case to the reign of Akbar, or of his son Jahángír, stand in various parts of the city. Fatehpur Síkri has little modern importance, and its architectural remains, which attract many tourists from Agra, are its chief claim to attention. During the Mutiny of 1857, it was occupied by the Nímach (Neemuch) and Nasírabad (Nusseerabad) rebels on the 2nd of July, and the British authorities did not permanently recover the place until November. Police station, Anglo-vernacular school, charitable dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £461; from taxes, £392, or 11d. per head of population (8513) within municipal limits.

Fateh Panjál.—Mountain chain in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab, forming a segment of a circle, and bounding the Kashmír valley to the south. Lat. 33° 34′ N., long. 74° 40′ E. Estimated height, about 12,000 feet; total length, 40 miles.

Fatwá.—Municipal town in Patná District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 11,295. Situated in lat. 25° 30′ 25″ N., and long. 85° 21′ E., at the junction of the Púnpún with the Ganges, and supported in a great measure by river traffic. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £516; rate of taxation, 7⅜d. per head of population; police force, 34 men. Fatwá was described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, in 1812, as a large country town, which might contain 2000 houses and 12,000 people, with a considerable trade and manufacture of cloth. Its position on the railway and on the Ganges naturally renders it a place of commercial importance. It is also a place of considerable sanctity. Five festivals are held here annually, when large numbers of pilgrims bathe in the sacred river. At the *Bární Dawádasí*, or festival commemorating an incarnation of Vishnu in the form of a dwarf, from 10,000 to 12,000 persons bathe at the junction of the Púnpún with the Ganges.

Fázilka.—*Tahsíl* of Sírsa District, Punjab, lying along the bank of the river Sutlej (Satlaj). Pop. (1868), 66,970, or 53·56 persons per square mile.

Fázilka.—Municipal town in Sírsa District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 30° 24′ 57″ N., long. 74° 4′ 10″ E.; pop. (1868), 3406. Situated on the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj).

Founded in 1844 by Mr. Oliver on the ruins of a deserted village, named after a Wattu chief, Fázil. Great entrepôt for the produce of the neighbourhood, and of the western portion of Patiála, exported towards Múltán (Mooltan) and Karáchi (Kurrachee). Considerable trade with Bháwalpur and the towns of Márwár. Station of an extra-Assistant Commissioner, court-house, *tahsíli*, police station, customs office, charitable dispensary, staging bungalow, *sarái*. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1213, or 5s. 6¾d. per head of population (4355) within municipal limits.

Ferokhi (*Farrukhábád*, 'Fortunate city').—The town which Tipú Sáhib in 1789 designed to be the capital of Malabar, and whither in that year he removed the inhabitants of Calicut. In the following year, however, it was captured by the British, and hardly a vestige now remains of the town. The site lies a few miles from Beypore (Bepur) in Malabar District, Madras.

Ferozábád. — *Tahsíl* and town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* FIROZABAD.

Ferozábád.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh.—*See* FIROZABAD.

Ferozepur.—District, *tahsíl*, and town, Punjab.—*See* FIROZPUR.

Ferozesháh. — Battle-field in Firozpur District, Punjab. — *See* FIROZSHAH.

Fingeswar.—Chiefship in the Central Provinces.—*See* PHINGESWAR.

Firinghi Bázár.—Village in Dacca District, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 33′ N., and long. 90° 33′ E., upon a branch of the river Ichámatí. Noted as the first Portuguese settlement in the District, formed, about 1663, during the Governorship of Shaistá Khán. These Portuguese were mainly persons who had deserted from the service of the Rájá of Arakan to that of Husáin Beg, the Mughal general besieging Chittagong, which at that time was Arakanese territory. Firinghi Bázár was once of considerable size, but its prosperity has declined since the decay of the Dacca trade, and it is now an insignificant village.

Firingípet (*Parangipetái*).—Town in South Arcot District, Madras. —*See* PORTO NOVO.

Firozábád.—*Tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the northern or Doáb bank of the river Jumna (Jamuná). Area, 205 square miles, of which 145 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 111,031; land revenue, £20,382; total Government revenue, £22,364; rental paid by cultivators, £33,256; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 1⅜d.

Firozábád. — Municipal town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 14,255, being 10,088 Hindus, 4166 Muhammadans, and 1 'other.' Lies in lat. 27° 8′ 34″ N., and long. 78° 25′

56″ E., on the route from Muttra (Mathura) to Etáwah; distant from Agra 25 miles east. Contains numerous ruins of handsome buildings, and appears to have been in former times an important centre. Station on the East Indian Railway main line. Telegraph office, charitable dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, police station. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £893; from taxes, £777, or 1s. 1½d. per head of population (13,788) within municipal limits.

Firozábád.—*Parganá* of Kheri District, Oudh, lying between the Chauka, Kauriála, and Daháwar rivers. The *parganá* receives its name from the Emperor Firoz Sháh, with whom it was a favourite hunting-ground. In olden times, it belonged in great part to the Bisens; but they were expelled, after repeated conflicts, by the Jangres, who in their turn were ousted in 1776 A.D., and their Rájá killed. About sixteen years afterwards, a relative of the deceased chief was granted a few patches of rent-free ground, which he gradually increased till in forty years he had obtained possession of the whole northern portion of the *parganá*, which now forms the estate of Isánagar, and is still in the possession of the family. The entire south of the *parganá* also forms a single estate, which has grown out of five villages granted to a Raikwár Kshattriya chief, who extended his possessions at the expense of his neighbours. The *parganá* is of alluvial formation, but is now well raised, and but little of it is exposed to flood. Soil, principally loam, but towards the centre is a good deal of clay. Area, 163 square miles, of which 104 are under cultivation. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 52,938, and Muhammadans, 4559; total, 57,497, viz. 30,491 males and 27,006 females. The Lodhs, who form 16 per cent. of the population, are the most numerous caste; next come Ahírs (11 per cent.), and Bráhmans (10 per cent.). Average density of population, 355 per square mile. The 91 villages constituting the *parganá* are held entirely by the Jangre and Raikwár *tálukdárs* above mentioned, who divide the *parganá* in about equal proportions.

Firozpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 30° 8′ and 31° 11′ N. lat., and between 74° 3′ 30″ and 75° 27′ E. long. Area (1878), 2739 square miles; population in 1868, 549,253. Firozpur forms the southern District of the Lahore Division. It is bounded on the north-east by the river Sutlej (Satlaj), which separates it from Jalandhar (Jullundur); on the north-west by the united stream of the Sutlej and Beas (Biás), which divides it from Lahore; on the east and south-east by Ludhiána District, and the Native States of Farídkot, Patiála, and Nábha; and on the south-west by Sírsa District. The administrative headquarters are at the town of FIROZPUR, on the southern bank of the Sutlej.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Firozpur is one unbroken plain, comprising within its limits every variety of soil, from the most fertile to

the most barren, to be found in the western half of the Punjab. The action of the Sutlej has played a chief part in determining its geographical features. Striking the District at its north-eastern corner, the great river trends northwards to its junction with the Beas (Biás), after which the united channel turns sharply toward the south-west, until it passes beyond the borders of Firozpur. The angular segment thus circumscribed has for its base an ancient bed of the river, known as the Sukhar Nái, which winds in a tortuous course east and west across the District, and joins the modern channel near the confines of Sírsa. The abrupt cliff which rises above its right bank forms the most marked element in the physical aspect of the country. Within the memory of the present generation, water is said to have flowed in its bed, while groves of *shísham* trees lined the banks; but no traces of timber now remain. Evidence, however, still exists of yet another and more ancient change of course in the shifting waters of the Sutlej. The original bank, locally known as the Dánda, crosses the south-western corner of the District 35 miles east of the present stream. It can be traced distinctly as far as the battle-field of Múdki (Moodkee), and thence at intervals to the Sutlej, 15 miles farther to the north. The poorest portion of Firozpur lies to the west of the Dánda, beyond the fertilizing influence of the modern river. The soil consists of hard and hopelessly sterile sand, while the water obtained from wells is largely impregnated with salt, and lies at a depth of 180 feet below the surface. East of the Dánda, however, excellent agricultural land stretches over the upland tract or *rohi;* and the wells yield sweet and drinkable water, sufficiently close to the surface for purposes of irrigation. The *bét* or low-lying tract between the great river and the high bank of the Sukhar Nái, has a maximum width of 14 miles opposite the confluence of the Beas (Biás) and the Sutlej. Much of its soil consists of a poor and sandy loam, but great facilities exist for artificial water supply; while the annual inundations render the border fringe extremely productive, through the deposit of a rich black silt. The northern portion of the District comprises a fairly wooded region, though most of the trees have been planted in recent years; but the southern half is still extremely bare of shade. When Firozpur first came under British rule, our authorities almost despaired of arboriculture in so dry a tract; yet the constant efforts of the settlement officers, who set apart a piece of ground as a plantation in every village, have at length been crowned with success, and the neighbourhood of the river, at least, now presents a pleasing variety of *siris*, *farásh*, and *pípal* trees. Plantations have also been established round every police station throughout the District, forming agreeable breaks in the monotony of the level and cultivated plain.

History.—Tradition, supported by remains of antiquity, assigns a

former period of great prosperity to a region which now forms the dreariest waste in the District of Firozpur. The neighbourhood of the dry Dánda channel, at present almost uninhabited, bears witness, by its deserted sites and choked-up wells, to the existence of a vigorous agricultural population along its now desolate banks. Though no date can be absolutely determined for this epoch of prosperity, there are good grounds for the belief that the Sutlej still flowed east of Firozpur in the time of Akbar; for the famous Mughal Domesday-Book, known as the *Ain-i-Akbari*, describes the town as the capital of a large district attached to the western Province of Múltán (Mooltan), and not to that of Sirhind, as would probably have been the case had the river already taken its modern course. The shifting of the river, from which the tract derived its fertility, and the ravages of war, were doubtless the chief causes of its decline, which probably commenced before the end of the 16th century. The country certainly presented the appearance of a desert when, about two centuries ago, the Dogras, a tribe who claim to rank as Chauhán Rájputs, settled near Pakpattan, and gradually spread up the Sutlej valley. They found none to oppose them, as the scattered Bhatti population who occupied the soil retired before the new colonists. At length, in 1740, according to tradition, they reached Ferozepore, which became thenceforth the capital of the tribe. The imperial authority was represented by an officer stationed at Kasúr, to the west of the Sutlej, bearing the title of the 'Faujdár of the Lakka Jungle.' About the same time, a tide of Ját immigration appears to have set in from the direction of Umballa (Ambála) and Sirhind; and Síkh chieftains began to carve out petty principalities for themselves in the western portion of the District. In 1763, the Bhangi confederacy, one of the great Síkh sections, attacked and conquered Firozpur under their famous leader, Gujar Sinh, who made over the newly acquired territory to his nephew, Gurbakhsh Sinh. The young Síkh chieftain rebuilt the fort and consolidated his power on the Sutlej, but spent most of his time in other portions of the Province. In 1792, he seems to have divided his estates with his family, when Firozpur fell to Dhanna Sinh, his second son. The little State, encircled by enemies, proved almost too difficult a realm for its new ruler, who lost his territories piece by piece, but still retained possession of Firozpur itself, when Ranjít Sinh crossed the Sutlej in 1808, and threatened to absorb all the minor principalities which lay between his domain and the British frontier. But the English Government, established at Delhi since 1803, intervened with an offer of protection to all the cis-Sutlej States; and Dhanna Sinh gladly availed himself of the promised aid, being one of the first chieftains who accepted British protection and control. Ranjít Sinh at once ceased to interfere with the minor States when the assistance of the British arms lay ready to support their

rights; and Dhanna Sinh retained the remnant of his dominions unmolested, until his death in 1818. He left no sons, and his widow succeeded to his principality during her lifetime; but on her death in 1835, the territory escheated to the British Government, under the conditions of the arrangement effected in 1809. The political importance of Firozpur had been already recognised, and an officer was at once deputed to take possession of the new post. After the boundary had been carefully determined, the District was made over for a while to a native official; but it soon became desirable to make Firozpur the permanent seat of a European Political Officer. In 1839, Sir Henry (then Captain) Lawrence took charge of the station, which formed at that time the advanced outpost of British India in the direction of the Síkh power. Early accounts represent the country as a dreary and desert plain, where rain seldom fell, and dust-storms never ceased. The energy of Captain Lawrence, however, combined with the unwonted security under British rule, soon attracted new settlers to this hitherto desolate region. Cultivation rapidly increased, trees began to fringe the water-side, trade collected round the local centres, and Firozpur, which in 1835 was a deserted village, had in 1841 a population of nearly 5000 persons. Four years later, the first Síkh war broke out. The enemy crossed the Sutlej opposite Firozpur on the 16th December 1845; and the battles of Múdkí (Moodkee), Firozsháh, Alíwál, and Sobráon—all of them within the limits of the present District—followed one another in rapid succession. Broken by their defeats, the Síkhs once more retired across the boundary river, pursued by the British army, which dictated the terms of peace beneath the walls of Lahore. The whole cis-Sutlej possessions of the Punjab kingdom passed into the hands of the East India Company, and the little principality of Firozpur became at once the nucleus for an important British District. The existing area was increased by subsequent additions, the last of which took place in 1864. Since the successful close of the first Síkh campaign, the peace of the District has never been broken, except during the Mutiny of 1857. In May of that year, one of the two Native infantry regiments stationed at Firozpur broke out into revolt, and, in spite of a British regiment and some European artillery, plundered and destroyed the buildings of the cantonment. The arsenal and magazine, however, which gave the station its principal importance, were saved without loss of life to the European garrison. The mutineers were subsequently dispersed.

Population.—The earliest Census of Firozpur District was taken in 1854, and showed a total population of 475,624 persons. The area then differed but little from that of the present time. A second enumeration, undertaken in January 1868, disclosed an increase of 13 per cent. in the fourteen years. It extended over an area of 2692 square

miles, and disclosed a total of 549,253 persons, distributed among 1312 villages or townships, and inhabiting 119,490 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 204; villages per square mile, 0·49; houses per square mile, 44·01; persons per village, 418; persons per house, 4·6. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 303,489; females, 245,764; proportion of males, 55·25 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 108,948; females, 94,077; total, 203,025, or 36·96 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, the District is mainly noticeable for the comparatively large proportion of its Síkh inhabitants, who number 160,487, or 29·22 per cent. of the total. The Muhammadans were returned at 245,659, or 44·72 per cent.; the Hindus at 68,406, or 12·45 per cent.; and the other sects at 74,701, or 13·60 per cent. The agricultural population amounted to 339,842 persons, of whom 104,558 were male agriculturists above the age of 18 years. As regards ethnical divisions and caste distinctions, the Hindus and Síkhs comprised 8632 Bráhmans, 8294 Kshattriyas, 10,702 Banias, 11,678 Aroras, and 104,391 Játs; while the Musalmán element included 17,133 Rájputs, 20,042 Játs, and 10,124 Gújars. The Muhammadans chiefly inhabit the low-lying lands (*bét*) along the banks of the Sutlej. The Dogras and Bhattis form the leading Rájput tribes, and bear the reputation of being lazy and thriftless. They also contribute to swell the returns of crime far beyond their fair numerical proportion. On the other hand, they hold a high social position in the District. The Síkh and Hindu Játs, fine specimens of their hardy and industrious race, apply their energy to cultivation in the upland plateau of the *rohi.* The Rájás of the neighbouring States of Patiálá, Jhind, and Nábha, belong to the Barár Subdivision of the Ját tribe. The population lies scattered very unevenly over the various portions of the District. In some parts of the low-lying Sutlej belt, a message can be passed from village to village, according to popular belief, by the human voice; while in the extreme south, a horseman at full speed could not pass from one inhabited spot to another within an hour. The District contains 7 municipalities—namely, FIROZPUR, pop. (1868) 20,592, exclusive of cantonment; MUKTSAR, 4694; DHARMKOT, 5379; ZIRA, 3010; MAKHU, 1715; FATEHGARH, 1654; KOT ISA KHAN, 1520. Firozpur, the headquarters station, is also important as a great military cantonment, and the chief arsenal of the Punjab. Pop. of cantonment (1877), 15,837.

Agriculture.—According to returns compiled in 1873-74, the District contained a total cultivated area of 1,243,508 acres; of which 136,450 were irrigated from private works, leaving 1,107,058 acres unsupplied with water by artificial means. The remainder comprised 377,722 acres of cultivable waste, and 132,020 of barren land. It appears, therefore, that only 7·5 per cent. of the whole District consists of irreclaimably sterile

soil, while 76·7 per cent. has already been brought under the plough. The staple crops include wheat for the *rabí* or spring harvest, and the two common millets, *joár* and *bájra*, for the *kharíf* or autumn harvest. Other important items are—barley, gram, tobacco, and oil-seeds for the *rabí;* and maize, cotton, pulses, and *til* for the *kharíf.* The low-lying lands along the Sutlej also produce a small quantity of rice. The area under the various staples was returned as follows in 1875-76:—Wheat, 208,763 acres; *joár*, 178,939 acres; *bájra*, 28,651 acres; maize, 34,620 acres; barley, 193,568 acres; gram, 187,921 acres; pulses, 160,628 acres; tobacco, 6131 acres; and cotton, 7326 acres. Irrigation is supplied from wells and canals. A single well in the *bét* tract will water from 20 to 40 acres; in the *rohi*, from 12 to 20 acres. The canals, being cuts filled by the Sutlej when in flood, exist only in the *bét.* All of them are of very recent construction, and owe their origin to the native industry of the people, aided by the advice and encouragement of an energetic British official. In 1875-76, as many as 43,331 acres of land received irrigation in this manner for the first time. The whole southern portion of the District still lies exposed to the ravages of famine, water being found at too great a depth to permit the use of wells for agricultural purposes; but to this thirsty tract the projected Sirhind Canal, now in course of construction, will shortly afford an abundant means of irrigation. The tenures of land conform to the ordinary Punjab types—*zamíndárs* being commonest among the Rájputs of the lowlands, while a partition of shares has usually taken place in the Ját communities of the interior. Tenant cultivators ordinarily pay their rents in kind, at rates which range from one-fourth to one-half of the gross produce. Money rates are paid only by occupancy tenants, who were permitted at the settlement of the land tax to commute payment in kind for a cash percentage upon the revenue due from their holdings. Occasional agricultural labour is always paid in grain. Cash wages in 1875-76 ranged from 3¾d. to 4½d. per diem for unskilled labour, and from 7½d. to 9d. for skilled labour. The prices-current of food grains ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1876:—Wheat, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; barley, 37 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; gram, 36 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 1d. per cwt.; *joár*, 37 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; and *bájra*, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Although the southern half of the District depends entirely upon the rainfall for its harvests, yet Firozpur has suffered comparatively little from famine. In 1869-70, the District not only supplied its own internal needs, but continued to export grain throughout the season of scarcity. Relief was required during several months, but principally for immigrants from Bíkaner (Bickaneer). On January 1st, 1870, wheat sold for 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.; and barley, for 11 *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 2d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The staple export of the District consists of grain, for which the market of Firozpur forms the local centre. The enterprising Ját cultivators of the interior carry on trade upon their own account, conveying their produce on camels or in carts, not only to Firozpur itself, but also to Amritsar, and even to Lahore. In the Sutlej (Satlaj) belt, the village *bania* acts as merchant and banker. Firozpur does a considerable trade with all the towns between the Jumna (Jamuná) and the Beas (Biás), while large consignments of wheat and cotton, collected from the District and the neighbouring Native States, are shipped down the Sutlej for Sukkur and Karáchí (Kurrachee). The exports to towns beyond the Punjab alone reached a value of £54,056 in 1871-72. An important cattle-fair takes place annually in the month of January at Muktsár, on the occasion of a great Síkh festival. The local manufactures are of the humblest description, being entirely confined to the supply of the neighbouring country. The chief road is that which connects Firozpur with Lahore on the one side, and with the Punjab Railway at Ludhiána on the other; it is metalled throughout, and passable by wheeled vehicles at all seasons. Good lines also radiate from Firozpur to Jalandhar (Jullundur), Karnál, Patiála, Fázilka, and other neighbouring towns. The total length of communications in 1875-76 was returned as follows:—By water, 128 miles; by metalled road, 80 miles; by unmetalled road, 475 miles. A line of telegraph connects the cantonment and arsenal of Firozpur with Ludhiána, and so with the other military centres of the Punjab.

Administration.—In 1851-52, the total revenue derived from the District amounted to £44,587; in 1861-62, it had risen to £50,712; and in 1875-76, to £62,386. This steady increase is mainly due to the growth of the land revenue, under the influence of extended irrigation and the impetus given to agricultural industry by a settled and peaceable Government; but part of it must also be attributed to the larger income derived from stamps. In 1851-52, the land-tax amounted to £36,044; by 1875-76, it had reached £50,953, or more than four-fifths of the total revenue. The Settlement at present in force was effected between the years 1852-55, and will not expire until 1883. Besides the imperial revenue, a local income of £9500 is realized by means of cesses for expenditure upon works of public utility within the District. In 1875-76, the administrative staff included 12 civil and revenue judges, two of whom were covenanted civilians. During the same year, the regular police force numbered 564 men, including the municipal constabulary; being an average of 1 man to every 4·95 square miles and every 973 of the population. This force was further supplemented by a rural body of 542 village watchmen or *chaukídárs.* During six years ending 1872, the criminal calendar contained 30 cases

of murder and 81 cases of robbery with violence, while the average number of thefts or criminal trespasses amounted to 1224 per annum. The District jail at Firozpur contained 1180 prisoners in 1872. Education has made but little way against the universal apathy of the inhabitants. In 1872-73, Government supported or aided 45 schools within the District, with 2569 pupils. The total cost of the educational establishment amounted to £1229, of which the State contributed £845. In 1875-76 the number of schools had risen to 53, and of pupils to 2755. These figures show an average of 1 school to 31·6 square miles, and of 5·0 scholars for every thousand of the population. The seven municipal towns had in 1875-76 an aggregate income of £4481, being at the rate of 2s. 9⅝d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—The District enjoys a reputation for exceptional healthiness, but in September and October, fever and pleuro-pneumonia largely prevail. Small-pox also exists in an endemic form. The official returns for 1875 give the total number of deaths during the year at 9813, being at the rate of 18 per thousand on the corrected population up to date. The District contains only one charitable dispensary, at Firozpur, which gave relief in 1875-76 to 10,971 persons, of whom 384 were in-patients. The rainfall is capricious, and scanty even in the best years; but its quantity appears to have increased, while its regularity has greatly improved with the spread of cultivation and the growth of trees. The average annual rainfall for the eight years ending 1873-74 was 19·8 inches; but that of the southern tract falls far short of the quantity in the northern lowlands.

Firozpur.—*Tahsíl* of Firozpur District, Punjab, lying between 30° 44′ 15″ and 31° 7′ 15″ N. lat., and between 74° 27′ 30″ and 74° 59′ 30″ E. long. Area, 470 square miles; pop. (1868), 131,500; persons per square mile, 278; number of villages, 365.

Firozpur.—Municipal town, military cantonment, and administrative headquarters of Firozpur District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), exclusive of cantonment, 20,592, being 7181 Hindus, 11,171 Musalmáns, 1347 Síkhs, and 893 'others.' Pop. of cantonment, 15,837; total pop. 36,429. Situated in lat. 30° 56′ 42″ N., and long. 74° 38′ 24″ E., on the old high bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), 3½ miles from the present bed of the river. It was founded, according to tradition, in the time of Firoz Sháh, Emperor of Delhi, A.D. 1351-1387, but was in a declining state at the period of the British annexation. Under a settled government, however, its growth has been rapid and steady, the population having increased fivefold since 1841. Now the seat of a thriving commerce, due principally to the exertions of Sir H. Lawrence, who induced many native traders to settle in the city, and more lately to the enterprise of an English merchant, who has erected a powerful cotton-

press in the vicinity. The main streets are wide and well paved, while a circular road which girdles the wall is lined by the gardens of wealthy residents. The cantonments lie 2 miles south of the city; and the garrison, now much reduced, ordinarily consists of a regiment of British infantry, one of Native infantry, and two batteries of artillery. The arsenal, to which the town owes its political importance, is by far the largest in the Punjab, and well stored with munitions of war. The public buildings include the District court-house, treasury, post office, police station, and staging bungalow, within the cantonments; the jail, town-hall, dispensary, school-house, and *sarái*, upon the road connecting the city with the military station; and the memorial church, in honour of those who fell in the Sutlej campaign of 1845-46, destroyed during the Mutiny, but since restored. Thriving trade in grain and other agricultural produce. For early history and events of 1857, see FIROZPUR DISTRICT. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £4050, or 5s. 4d. per head of pop. (15,164) within municipal limits.

Firozpur.—Southern *tahsíl* of Gurgáon District, Punjab; lying between 27° 39′ and 27° 59′ N. lat., and between 76° 56′ and 77° 9′ E. long.

Firozpur.—Municipal town in Gurgáon District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1868), 9156, being 2744 Hindus, 1229 Muhammadans, 3 Síkhs, and 5180 'others.' Situated in lat. 27° 46′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 59′ 30″ E., on a small perennial stream, in the extreme south of the District. Said to have been founded by the Emperor Firoz Sháh, who placed a cantonment here for the subjugation of the neighbouring hill tribes. Annexed by the British Government in 1803, but granted in *jágír* to Ahmad Baksh Khán, whose son, Nawáb Shams-ud-dín Khán, was executed in 1836 for the murder of Mr. W. Fraser, Commissioner of Delhi. Since that period, it has formed the headquarters of a sub-collectorate. Thriving trade in country produce; exports of grain and cotton; imports of rice, sugar, and English piece-goods. *Tahsíli*, police station, school-house. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £757, or 1s. 5d. per head of population (10,580) within municipal limits.

Firozsháh.—Battle-field in Firozpur District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 53′ N., and long. 74° 49′ 45″ E., about 12 miles from the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Rendered famous by the attack made upon the formidably entrenched Síkh camp, Dec. 21, 1845, by the British forces under Sir Hugh Gough and Sir Henry Hardinge. After two days' severe fighting, the entrenchments were carried and the enemy completely routed, but not without heavy losses on the part of the conquerors. No trace of the earthworks now remains, but a monument erected upon the spot perpetuates the memory of the officers and men who fell in the engagement.

Fort St. David.—South Arcot District, Madras.—*See* DAVID, FORT ST.

Fort St. George.—Citadel of Madras, and the name officially applied to the Government of the Presidency.—*See* MADRAS TOWN.

Fort-William.—Citadel of Calcutta, and the name officially applied to the Government of Bengal.—*See* CALCUTTA.

Foul Island (in Burmese, *Nan-tha-kywon*).—An uninhabited island off the coast of Sandoway, in Arakan Division, British Burma; lying about lat. 18° 3′ N., 6 leagues from the mainland, and 7 from Bluff Point, and visible from a distance of 8 leagues. The island is about 2 miles long, and is conical in form. To the north-east there are islets and rocks near the shore, and a reef partly above water extending southwards. The name is derived from a so-called mud-volcano, which at times emits a torrent of hot mud bubbling with marsh gas.

Fraserpet.—Town in the territory of Coorg; situated in lat. 12° 27′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 0′ 20″ E., on the banks of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, 20 miles east of Merkára, and 2720 feet above sea level. Pop. (1872), 1832. Originally called Kushalnágara, the name was changed in honour of Colonel Fraser, the first British Political Agent in Coorg (1834). The fort was built of hewn stone by Tipú Sultán, and stormed and demolished in 1789 by the Coorgs under their native Rájá, Dodda Vira Rájendra. The ruins supplied materials for the construction of the fine bridge over the Káveri (Cauvery), finished in 1848. Fraserpet is the residence of the Superintendent of Coorg during the monsoon months, when the climate is much less damp and unhealthy than at Merkára.

French Possessions.—I have condensed the following brief account of the French Settlements from materials courteously furnished to me at Pondicherri by His Excellency the Governor-General of French India, supplemented by later documents kindly placed at my disposal in the Ministère de la Marine et des Colonies, Paris, June 1879. Pains have been taken to render it accurate; but no responsibility rests with Her Majesty's Government of India for any statements contained in it. A separate account of each of the Settlements will be given under its own name. I have not, however, always found it possible to bring the local figures into exact accord with those obtained in France for this general *résumé.*

The French Possessions in India comprise five Settlements, with certain dependent 'Lodges,' at which the right is reserved of hoisting the French flag. They aggregate 178 square miles, and had a total population in 1876 of 285,022, distributed as follows:—

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN INDIA.

Name.	Area in Square Miles.	Population (1876).	Revenue for 1878.
Pondicherri, ...	113	156,094	£40,720
Chandarnagar, ...	3	22,496	8,046
Karikál, ...	52	92,516	16,037
Mahé, ...	5	8,442	1,852
Yanáon, or Yanán, . . .	5	5,474	1,426
Total, ...	178	285,022	£68,081

A more detailed statement, dated Pondicherri, 1st January 1877, gives the total population at 280,381—viz., Europeans, 1116; Eurasians, 1511; natives, 277,754: total, 280,381.

History.—The first French expedition into Indian waters, with a view to opening up commercial relations, dates as far back as 1603. It was undertaken by private merchants of Rouen; but it failed, as also did several similar attempts which followed it. In 1642, Cardinal Richelieu founded the first Compagnie des Indes Orientales, but its efforts met with no success. Colbert reconstituted the Company on a larger basis in 1664, granting it exemption from taxes and a monopoly of the Indian trade for fifty years. After having twice attempted, without success, to establish itself in Madagascar, Colbert's Company again took up the idea of direct trade with India, and its president, Caron, founded in 1668 the 'comptoir' or agency at Surat. But on finding that city unsuited for a head establishment, he seized the harbour of Trincomali in Ceylon from the Dutch. The Dutch, however, quickly retook Trincomali, and Caron, passing over to the Coromandel coast, in 1672, seized Saint Thomas, a Portuguese town which had for twelve years been in the possession of Holland. But he had to restore it to the Dutch in 1674.

The ruin of the Company seemed impending, when one of its agents, the celebrated Francois Martin, suddenly restored it to life. Rallying under him a handful of sixty Frenchmen, saved out of the wrecks of the colonies at Trincomali and Saint Thomas, he took up his abode at Pondicherri, which he purchased in 1683 from the local Rájá. He built fortifications, and a trade began to spring up; but he was unable to hold the town against the Dutch, who accordingly wrested it from him in 1683, and held it until it was restored to the French by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1699.

Pondicherri became in this year, and has ever since remained, the most important of the French Settlements in India. Its foundation was exactly contemporaneous with that of CALCUTTA; like Calcutta, its site

was purchased by a European Company from a Native Prince; and what Job Charnock was to Calcutta, Francois Martin proved to Pondicherri. On its restitution to the French by the Peace of Ryswick in 1699, Martin was appointed Governor-General, and under his able management Pondicherri became an entrepôt of trade. CHANDARNAGAR, in Lower Bengal, had been acquired by the French Company in 1688, by grant from the Delhi Emperor; MAHE, on the Malabar coast, was obtained in 1725-26, under the government of M. Lenoir; KARIKAL, on the Coromandel coast, under that of M. Dumas in 1739. YANAON and MASULIPATAM (the site of a French factory in the 17th century), on the northern coast of Madras, were taken possession of in 1750, and were formally ceded to the French two years later.

The war of 1741 between France and England, led to the attack alike of Madras and of Pondicherri, the capitals of the French and English Companies in Southern India. Labourdonnais equipped at his own charges a fleet, and laid siege to Madras, which capitulated on the 21st September 1746. It was ransomed for £400,000. The English in due time made reprisals. On the 26th April 1748, they appeared before Pondicherri, but eventually retired after a most skilful defence of the town conducted by Dupleix during forty-two days. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle put a stop, in that year, to further hostilities, and left Dupleix free to realize his dream of an Indian Empire for France. Between 1746 and 1756, he obtained from the Delhi Emperor the Nawábship of the Karnatic; established a protectorate over the Subah of Arcot and other parts of Southern India; made large additions to the French territory around Pondicherri, Karikál, and Masulipatam, and extended the French authority over the four Districts of Montfanagar, Ellore, Rájáhmandri with Chikakol and the island of Seringham, formed by two arms of the Cauvery. These various annexations opened up to the French commerce 200 leagues of seaboard, and yielded a revenue of £800,000 ('20 millions de francs').

This period of power proved of short duration. Dupleix, feebly supported by the Court of Versailles, met with a series of reverses from the English Company, and was recalled to Paris in 1753. A certain extent of territory still remained to his successor; but during the Seven Years' War, the Government of France could afford no reinforcements for its Indian possessions. The English Company overran them, defeated the French at Wandewash, and seized Arcot. Lally-Tollendal, after a chivalrous defence, surrendered Pondicherri on the 6th January 1761. The English demolished the town; the walls, the forts, the public buildings, were all destroyed. The captured troops and all Europeans in the French Company's service were deported back to France.

Two years later, the peace of 1763 restored Pondicherri and the

Present Territories.—In addition to the five Settlements already mentioned, and which are treated of in separate articles, the French retain certain houses or patches of ground within British territory, where they have the right to hoist their flag. These '*Loges*' or patches of ground mark the sites of ancient French factories. The retention of such memorials of former times was conceded to the French sentiment; but most of the 'Lodges' are now unknown to the inhabitants of the towns in which they are situated; and their interest is purely historical. The following is a list, from French official sources, of the five Settlements, together with their dependent *loges* or *factoreriès* within British territory :—

1st. On the Coromandel coast.—(*a*) The Settlement of PONDICHERRI, composed of the Districts of Pondicherri proper, Villenour, and Bahur; total, 113 square miles. (*b*) The Settlement of KARIKAL, 52 square miles.

2d. On the northern Madras coast.—The Settlement of YANAON, 5 square miles, with a *loge* at Masulipatam, marking the site of the French factory of the last century. The British took possession of Masulipatam in 1769; and the French authorities have resigned their right to make or sell spirituous liquors within their *loge* for a sum of £350 a year (Convention, dated 31st March 1853). The *loge*, with the village of France-pet, 3 kilometres north-west of Masulipatam, is said to have from 100 to 200 native inhabitants.

3d. On the Malabar coast.—The Settlement of MAHE, 5 square miles; with a *loge* in the British town of Calicut, 'occupée par un gardien.'

4th. On the northern Bombay coast.—No Settlement, but a *factorerie* in the British town of Surat, 'occupée par un gardien;' and consisting of a patch of ground with some huts, let for a rental of £8 a year.

5th. In Bengal.—The Settlement of CHANDARNAGAR, 3 square miles; with 5 *loges*, claimed at Kásímbázár, Jugdia, Patná, Dacca, and Balasor, each said to consist of a small patch of ground with a ruin, a hut, or a tenement of some sort on it. The French reserve the right to hoist their flag at them all, but they are not in active possession of any of the five. The *loges* at Dacca and Balasor (like the *loge* at Surat already mentioned) are let for a trifling rental; the other three Bengal *loges* claimed at Kásímbázár, Jugdia, and Patná have never been given up by the British Government.

Revenue and Expenditure for 1878.—Receipts, as per budget, for all the French Settlements in India, £68,081 (1,702,042 francs); expenditure, £68,081. The million francs (£40,000) annually paid by the English Government in compensation for the surrender by the French authorities of their rights in regard to opium and salt, only passes through the Colonial accounts on its way to the National Exchequer, and does not appear in the above statement. Among

Furreedábád.—Town in Delhi District, Punjab.—*See* FARIDABAD.

Furreedcote.—Native state in the Punjab.—*See* FARIDKOT.

Furreedpore.—District and town in Bengal, and *tahsíl* and town in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* FARIDPUR.

Fyzábád.—Division, District, *tahsíl*, and town in Oudh.—*See* FAIZABAD.

G

Gad.—One of the petty States in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 134 sq. miles; estimated revenue, £1270. The chief, Ráná Bharat Sinhjí, pays tribute of £50 as a feudatory of the Rájá of Chotá Udáipur.

Gadádhar.—River in North-Eastern Bengal; tributary to the Brahmaputra. It rises among the mountains of Bhután, and debouches upon the plains of the Dwárs through a picturesque gorge. The main stream of this river forms the boundary between the Western Dwárs, or Jalpáigurí District, and the Eastern Dwárs, which are included within Goálpára. Owing to many alterations in its course and variations in the size of the different channels, the Gadádhar undergoes several changes of name. The upper reaches are sometimes identified with the SANKOS, which is properly the name of a separate river. After entering Goálpára District, the river bifurcates, the larger volume of water now passing into the Brahmaputra by a channel called the Gangádhar. The old channel, which retains the original name, is nearly dry, and only supported by the water of a small tributary, the Bámnái. The Gadádhar is navigable in the plains by boats of 4 tons burthen.

Gadag (*Garag*).—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay.—*See* GARAG.

Gádawára.—The western *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision of Narsinhpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 138,670, residing in 342 villages or townships and 25,898 houses, on an area of 654 square miles; land revenue (1869-70), £17,088.

Gádawára.—A flourishing town in Narsinhpur District, Central Provinces; on the left bank of the river Shakar, at the junction of the roads to Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Ságar (Saugor), and 28 miles by the main road from Narsinhpur station. Lat. 22° 55′ 30″ N., long. 78° 50′ E.; pop. (1876), 6068, chiefly tradesmen and artisans. Gádawára manufactures Khárwá cloth and *chhántí*, and does a brisk trade in cotton, salt, and grain at the markets held every Monday and Friday. The public offices are in the small fortress on the river bank, built by a family of Gond Rájputs in the early days of Marhattá rule. There is a boys' school with an English class.

Gaddilam (or *Garudánadi*).—River in South Arcot District, Madras. —*See* GARUDANADI.

Gadhali.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár in Káthiáwár, Bom-

bay; consisting of 3 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £900; tribute of £169 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £30 to Junágarh.

Gadhia.—One of the petty States in South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £250; tribute of £27 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2 to Junágarh.

Gadhi Dúbhar.—Village in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 2417, including many Muhammadan Baluchís, relations and clansmen of the *zamíndár*. The town contains several brick-built houses, and the roads are also paved with brick. Six mosques, daily *bázár*, and large weekly market on Sundays. Principal articles of trade—sugar and salt. Several fine groves of trees surround the village.

Gadhula.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £300; tribute of £16 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2 to Junágarh.

Gadkhálí.—Town and police station in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the river Kabadak, on the road from Calcutta to Jessor. Lat. 23° 5′ 30″ N., long. 89° 6′ E. In former days the scene of numerous outrages, perpetrated by the Bediyás, then a predatory tribe, now a wandering gipsy caste.

Gadra.—Municipal town in Umárkot *táluk*, Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency, Sinh. Pop. (1872), 1126,—48 Muhammadans; 1078 Hindus, chiefly Bráhmans, Lohános, Sodhos, Mengwárs, and Bhíls. Municipal revenue (1873-74), £71; disbursements, £87; rate of taxation per head within municipal limits, 1s. 3d.

Gágar.—Range of mountains in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, forming a portion of the outer Himálayan range; situated between lat. 29° 14′ to 29° 30′ E., and long. 79° 9′ to 79° 39′ E. The chain runs along the whole southern border of the District, parallel to the plains, from the Rámganga to the Káli, and presents a line of higher elevation than any ranges between it and the main ridge of the central Himálayas. The principal peak is that of Chína, overlooking the lake and station of NAINI TAL, which nestle among the hollows of the Gágar. Forests of cypress, *tún*, fir, and other timber trees clothe the various summits to their very tops. Average elevation, between 7000 and 8000 feet.

Gáglá.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal, lying between the Sankos and Dharlá rivers. Chief exports—jute, tobacco, and ginger. Lat. 25° 59′ N., long. 89° 40′ 30″ E.

Gahijá.—Government town in Shikárpur District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 1123, the Muhammadans belonging chiefly to the Gahijá tribe, whence

the village derives its name; the Hindus are mainly Lohános. Travellers' bungalow.

Gahmar.—Town in Gházipur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 29′ 40″ N., long. 83° 50′ 55″ E.; area, 108 acres; pop. (1872), 9050. Stands in the southern portion of the District, 1 mile south of the Ganges and 15 miles south-east of Gházipur. Station on East Indian Railway main line.

Gajapatinagar.—*Táluk* in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Houses, 24,707, collected into 228 villages, all *zamíndári*; pop. (1871), 108,351, being 55,653 males and 52,698 females. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 107,781, including 12,073 Sivaites and 95,680 Vishnuvites; Muhammadans, 570, of whom 505 were Sunnis. Chief town, GAJAPATINAGAR.

Gajapatinagar.—Town in above *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 16′ N., long. 83° 25′ E.; pop. (1871), 2272, residing in 579 houses. Headquarters of the *táluk*, with sub-magistrate's and *munsif's* courts, and a good school. An important mart for hill produce.

Gajendragad.—Town in Kaládgi District, Bombay; 41 miles south-east of Kaládgi town. Lat. 15° 44′ 30″ N., long. 76° 0′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 7665.

Gajghantá.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Chief exports—jute and lime. Lat. 25° 49′ 45″ N., long. 89° 10′ (89° 19′?) E.

Galáothí.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 12 miles north of Bulandshahr town. Pop. (1872), 5608, 2658 Hindus and 2943 Muhammadans, and 7 'others.' The followers of the two religions are said to be on bad terms with each other, and are frequently engaged in affrays. Akbar gave revenue-free grants to a number of Sayyids, whose descendants held them till 1858, when they were confiscated on account of the rebellion of their holders. The celebrated rebel, Wálidád Khán of Málágarh, held a half-share in the village. Halting-place and encamping ground for troops, travellers' rest-house (*sarái*), police station, post office, and weekly market. A small village police force and conservancy staff are maintained out of municipal funds derived from a house tax.

Galghásiá (or *Bánstálá*).—River in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; formed by the junction of the Bánstálá Khál and Guntiákhálí. Falls, after a south-easterly course, into the KHOLPETUA, opposite Kalyánpur village.

Galikonda (or *Galiparvat*, 'Windy Hill').—Range of hills in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 30′ N., long. 18° 50′ E.; averaging from 2800 to 5000 feet above sea level, about 45 miles from the sea. The two highest peaks reach a height of 5345 and 5287 feet respectively. The shape of the range is that of a double crescent joined by a

narrow saddle. The summits of the range are of gneiss and syenite, capped with laterite and black mould. They are easy of access except near the top, but the road throughout has been improved by Government sappers. In 1860, the Madras Government tested this range as a sanitarium by sending up a detachment of Europeans to a site selected, and named 'Harris's Valley.' The place, however, proved unhealthy, the men suffering much from fever, and, after repeated attempts, the experiment was abandoned. It was thought, however, that a healthier site for the cantonment might have been found. The land is the property of the Rájá of Vizianágaram, who has a coffee estate here.

Gallu.—A branch of the Indus river, in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. It diverges from the main stream in lat. 24° 28′ N., and long. 67° 54′ E., and debouches in lat. 24° 6′ N., and long. 67° 22′ E., by the Hajámro mouth.

Gambat.—Town in the Khairpur State, Sind. Pop. (1872), 4537. Formerly a centre of cotton-weaving; annual produce about 5000 pieces.

Gambhar.—Mountain stream of the Punjab, taking its rise in the lower ranges of the Himálayas, in lat. 30° 52′ N., long. 77° 8′ E., and flowing in a north-westerly direction past the military station of Subáthu, until it falls into the Sutlej (Satlaj), after a course of about 40 miles, in lat. 31° 17′ N., long. 76° 47′ E. It is nowhere navigable, and in the rainy season it is liable to sudden floods. The river is bridged near Subáthu, on the road to Simla.

Gambíla (or *Tochí*).—River in Bannu District, Punjab; rises in the independent hill country, among the Safed Koh Mountains, and enters British territory a few miles from the town of Bannu. Its banks afford but little opportunity for cultivation, being at first composed of boulders, and afterwards of pure sand. A few irrigation cuts, however, supply water to some 12,138 acres of tilled land. It falls into the KURAM a few miles below Lakki, lat. 32° 37′ 30″ N., long. 71° 6′ 15″ E. Sweet and wholesome drinking water. Average depth, 1½ feet in the cold season, 4½ feet during the rains. Nowhere bridged, but fordable at all times, except after heavy rain in the hills.

Gamún-aing.—Revenue circle in the valley of the Kyoukgyí, a tributary of the Tsittoung in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 120 square miles; pop. (1876), 6538, chiefly Karengs towards the east; gross revenue, derived mainly from fisheries and net tax, £1774.

Gandái.—Chiefship attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces, at the foot of the Sáletekri Hills, 56 miles north-west of Ráipur. The estate was formerly much larger; but in 1828, by the sanction of the Rájá of Nágpur, it was divided among the three sons of the former holder. This part now consists of 85 villages. The chief is a Gond. The principal village, Gandái, is situated in lat. 21° 40′ 30″ N., and long. 81° 9′ E.

Gandak, Great (known also as the *Náráyani* or *Salgrámi*; the *Kondochates* of the Greek geographers).—River in the North-Western Provinces and Behar; rises high among the recesses of the Nepál Himálayas, in lat. 30° 56′ 4″ N., and long. 79° 6′ 40″ E., and flowing with a general south-westward course till it reaches British territory, passes into our frontier between the North-Western District of Gorakhpur, and the District of Champáran in Bengal. For some 20 miles it forms the boundary between the two Provinces, after which it flows entirely within the limits of Bengal for 40 miles farther, and then once more separates the Provinces for 12 miles of its course. Thence it enters the limits of Bengal, flowing between the Districts of Champáran and Muzaffarpur (Tirhut) on the north-east, and Sáran on the south-west. It finally joins the Ganges just opposite Patná, in lat. 25° 49′ 53″ N., and long. 85° 13′ 45″ E. The Gandak is a snow-fed stream, issuing from the hills at Tribení *ghát*, in the north-west of Champáran, but it soon afterwards acquires the character of a deltaic river. Its banks generally rise above the level of the surrounding country, and floods accordingly often inundate large tracts of the low-lying land on either side. It has no tributaries in its course through the plains, and the drainage of the neighbouring region sets not towards it, but away from it. The lowest discharge of water into the Ganges, towards the end of March, amounts to 10,391 cubic feet per second; the highest recorded flood volume is 266,000 cubic feet per second. During a great part of its course, the river is enclosed by protective embankments. Where it issues from the hills it has a clear and rapid current of great size, never fordable, full of rapids and whirlpools, and navigable with difficulty on account of its fierce outflow. Rafts of timber come down the stream from Nepál, and these, with the sunken snags, render navigation perilous. Grain and sugar are sent down from Gorakhpur District; and during the rains, boats of 1000 *maunds* burden can make their way up stream as far as Lálganj in Tirhut. The down traffic is easier and more considerable than the up trade, and a register kept for four months of 1868 showed an export of 26,300 tons of produce during that period.

Gandak, Little.—River in the North-Western Provinces; rises in the Nepál Hills, and enters Gorakhpur District about 8 miles west of the Great Gandak; flows parallel with the latter channel southward through the District, and empties itself into the Gogra (Ghagra) at Súnaria, just within the limits of Sáran in Bengal, in lat. 25° 41′ N., long. 85° 14′ 30″ E. Except in the rains, it has a small stream only 20 yards in breadth, and fordable in most places.

Gandava.—Town in Baluchistán, situated on the Mulá Pass route. Lat. 28° 32′ N., long. 67° 32′ E. A fortified place, built apparently on an artificial mound. The winter residence of the Khán of Khelát,

whose palace was described as the only respectable edifice in the place. This building was almost entirely destroyed by the great floods of 1874.

Gandevi.—Town in Guzerat, Bombay, within the territory of the Gáekwár of Baroda; 8 miles north of the Bilimora station of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, and 28 miles south-east of Surat. Lat. 20° 47′ 30″ N., long. 73° 3′ E.; pop. (1872), 7218.

Gandgarh.—Range of hills in Ráwal Pindi and Hazára Districts, Punjab. Lat. 33° 57′ N., long. 72° 46′ E. These hills take their rise in Hazára, and, projecting into Ráwal Pindi, end in the lofty mountain which specially bears the name of Gandgarh. The northern escarpment toward the valley of Chach descends by gentle cultivated slopes into the fertile vale at its feet; but the remaining sides form rugged and precipitous cliffs, intersected by ravines, through which the tributaries of the little river Haroh have cut themselves deep channels.

Gandha Mádan.—One of the principal peaks in the Orissa Tributary States, Bengal; situated in Keunjhar State. Lat. 21° 38′ 12″ N., long. 85° 32′ 56″ E.; height, 3479 feet.

Gandhol.—One of the petty States of Undsarvíya in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £200; tribute of £10 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to Junágarh.

Gandikot (‘*The Fort of the Gorge;*’ *Gunjicottah*).—Mountain fortress in Cuddapah District, Madras; situated in the Yerramalái Mountains, 1670 feet above sea level. Lat. 14° 48′ N., long. 78° 20′ E. The fort, with its temple (endowed by the earliest of the Vijáyanagar kings), was a famous stronghold in ancient days. Built (according to Ferishta) in 1589, it was captured by Golconda, and held by Mír Jambá; later it was the capital of one of the five Circars (Sarkárs) of the Karnatic Haidarábád Bálághát, until absorbed by the Pathán Nawáb of Cuddapah. It was here that Fateh Náik, the father of the great Haidar, first distinguished himself. Haidar improved and garrisoned the fort, which was captured by Captain Little in the first war with Tipú in 1791. ‘The strong natural fortress of Gandikot, must in olden times have been impregnable. Perched on the scarped rock that overhangs at a height of some 300 feet the winding Pennár, this picturesque group of buildings, military and religious together, illustrate the wild secluded life which to a Hindu robber chief seemed to be grandeur. Cut off from all but those who sought (and could climb innumerable stairs) to see him, he surrounded himself at once with temples and bastions, with a crowd of priests and a rabble of soldiers; and yet no sooner was the impregnable fort attacked, than it belied its name, and yielded to treachery or fear. The fort of Gandikot was, however, one of the most important in the Cuddapah country. It was the key to the valley of the Pennár, and its name frequently occurs

in the account of ancient struggles'—(Gribble). The population of Gandikot town (1871) was 1175.

Ganeswári.—River in the Gáro Hills District, Assam, rising in lat. 25° 18′ N., long. 90° 49′ E. Its course lies through a limestone formation, in which there are some large stalactite caverns. Its rocky banks form scenery of a picturesque beauty.

Ganga Bál.—Lake in Kashmír State, Punjab; on the Harámak Mountain, near the north-eastern boundary of the valley. Lat. 34° 27′ N., long. 74° 58′ E. Length, 1½ mile; breadth, 300 yards. Remarkable only for its sanctity in the eyes of Hindus, who make pilgrimages to its banks, and throw into the waters such fragments of the bones of their relatives as remain unconsumed after the funeral cremation.

Gangáikandapúr (*Gangá-kanda puram* (Tamil), 'The city visited by the Ganges,' from a well in the temple mythically connected with the Ganges; sometimes also called *Gangáikondu Solapúr*, or 'The city of the Chola king, Gangái').—Town and temple in Trichinopoli District, Madras. Lat. 11° 12′ 30″ N., long. 79° 30′ E., about 6 miles to the east of Jáiamkondu Solápuram; connected with Udaiyárpolaiyam by the Chellambaram road, and 1 mile distant from the great Trunk Road running from Tanjore to South Arcot. The village is purely agricultural, 66 per cent. of the population being cultivators; total pop. (1871), 1014; houses, 143. Close to the village is one of the most remarkable but least known temples in Southern India. The building consists of one large enclosure, measuring 584 feet by 372. This was evidently once well fortified by a strong surrounding stone wall, with batteries at each corner. In 1836, however, the batteries were almost entirely destroyed, and the wall removed, to provide materials for the dam across the river Coleroon known as the Lower Anicut, which was then under construction. In the place of the old wall, a low one of stone has been built on two sides of the enclosure, but the other sides have been left open. The *Vimana* in the centre of the courtyard is a very conspicuous building, and strikes the eye from a great distance. The pyramid surmounting it reaches a height of 174 feet. The ruins of six *gopuras*, or gate pyramids, surmount different parts of the building. That over the eastern entrance to the main enclosure was evidently once a very fine structure, being built entirely of stone except at the very top. It is now almost completely in ruins. All the lower part of the centre building is covered with inscriptions, which have not as yet been deciphered. Dr. Caldwell is of opinion that this temple is one of the great, if not the greatest, of present Hindu temples, and that the old and splendid temple of Tanjore is probably merely a model of it. Tradition says that the village was once one of the principal seats of the Chola kings; and there is no doubt that it was formerly a much more important spot than it now is. Northward from its site runs an

embankment 16 miles long, provided with several substantial sluices, and of great strength, which in former times must have formed one of the largest reservoirs in India. This huge tank or lake was filled partly by a channel from the Coleroon river, upwards of 60 miles in length, which enters it at its southern end; and partly by a smaller channel from the Vellár, which entered it on the north. Traces of both these channels still remain. The tank has been ruined and useless for very many years, and its bed is now almost wholly overgrown with high and thick jungle. It is said, traditionally, that its ruin was wilful, and the act of an invading army. 'All round the Pagoda and village, but completely overgrown with jungle, are some remains of ancient buildings, now much resembling the mounds or "heaps" which indicate the site of ancient Babylon, but in which the village elders point out the various parts of an extensive and magnificent palace. When this palace was in existence, Ganga-kanda-puram was the wealthy and flourishing capital of a small monarchy; and the great tank spread fertility and industry over miles and miles of what is now trackless forest'—(Pharaoh). It has more than once been projected to restore this magnificent work, and to supply it by a channel from the Upper Anicut.

Gangáwali.—Seaport in Subdivision of North Kanara District, Bombay. Lat. 14° 36′ N., long. 74° 21′ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £1311; imports, £240.

Ganges.—The great river of Northern India, formed by the drainage of the southern ranges of the Himálayas. This magnificent stream, which in its lower course supplies the river system of Bengal, rises in the Garhwál State, in lat. 30° 56′ 4″ N., and long. 79° 6′ 40″ E., and falls into the Bay of Bengal after a course of 1557 miles. It issues under the name of the Bhágirathi from an ice cave at the foot of a Himálayan snow-bed above Gangotri, 13,800 feet above the level of the sea. During its earlier passage through the southern spurs of the Himálayas, it receives the JAHNAVI from the north-west, and subsequently the ALAKNANDA, after which the united stream takes the name of the Ganges. DEO PRAYAG, their point of junction, is a celebrated place of pilgrimage, as is also Gangotri, the source of the parent stream. At Sukhi, it pierces through the Himálayas, and turns south-west to HARDWAR, also a place of great sanctity. Thence it proceeds by a tortuous course through the Districts of Dehra Dún, Saháranpur, Muzaffarnagar, Bulandshahr, and Farrukhábád, in which last District it receives the Rámganga. At Allahábád, the type of the river changes. Heretofore, the Ganges has been little more than a series of shoals, pools, and rapids, except, of course, during the melting of the snows and the rainy season. At Allahábád, however, 668 miles from its source, it receives the JUMNA, a mighty confluent, which also takes its rise in the Himálayas to the west

of the sources of the Ganges. The combined river winds eastwards by south-east through the North-Western Provinces, receiving the Gumti and the Gogra. The point of junction of each of these streams has more or less claim to sanctity. But the tongue of land at Allahábád, where the Jumna and the Ganges join, is the true Prayág, *the* place of pilgrimage, to which hundreds of thousands of devout Hindus repair to wash away their sins in the sacred river.

Of all great rivers on the surface of the globe, none can compare in sanctity with the Ganges, or Mother Ganga, as she is affectionately called by devout Hindus. From her source in the Himálayas to her mouth in the Bay of Bengal, every foot of her course is holy ground; and many of the other sacred rivers of India borrow their sanctity from a supposed underground connection with her waters. It is interesting to observe that this superstition is not to be found in the earliest books of Sanskrit literature, composed at a time when the primitive Aryan race had not yet penetrated into the great plain of Eastern Hindustan. The legend of the Ganges first appears in the two epic poems of the *Mahábhárata* and *Rámáyana*, and affords abundant scope for the mytho-poetic faculty subsequently displayed in the voluminous literature of the *Puránas*. In this legend, which admits of numerous variations, the three supreme gods of the Hindu Pantheon—Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva—each perform a conspicuous part, so that the Ganges has been preserved from sectarian associations. The human *dramatis personæ* in the story are localized as princes of AYODHYA, the modern Oudh. Ganga herself is described as the daughter of the Himálayas, who is persuaded, after infinite solicitation, to shed her purifying stream upon the sinful earth. The ice-cavern beneath the glacier at GANGOTRI, from which the river springs, is represented as the tangled hair of the god Siva. The names of BHAGIRATHI and SAGAR have a prominent place in the legend.

After the lapse of twenty centuries, and the rise and fall of rival religions, veneration for the Ganges still figures as a chief article in the creed of modern Hinduism. The pre-eminently sacred spots on its banks—GANGOTRI, HARDWAR, ALLAHABAD, BENARES, and SAGAR ISLAND—are frequented by thousands of pilgrims from every Province of the peninsula. Even at the present day the six years' pilgrimage from the source to the mouth, and back again, known as *Pradakshina*, is performed by many; and a few fanatical devotees may yet be seen wearily accomplishing this meritorious penance by 'measuring their length.' To bathe in the Ganges, especially at the great stated festivals, will wash away the stain of sin; and those who have thus purified themselves carry back bottles of the sacred water to their less fortunate relations. To die and be burned on the river bank is a passport to eternal bliss. Even to exclaim 'Ganga, Ganga,' at the

distance of a hundred leagues, will atone for the sins committed during three previous lives.

The river thus reverenced by the Hindus deserves their homage by reason of its exceptional utility for agriculture and navigation. None of the other rivers of India approaches the Ganges in beneficence. The Brahmaputra and the Indus may have longer streams, as measured by the geographer, but the upper courses of both lie hidden within the unknown recesses of the Himálayas. Not one of the great rivers of Central or Southern India is navigable in the proper sense of the term. The Ganges begins to distribute fertility as soon as it reaches the plains, within 200 miles of its sources; and at the same point it becomes in some sort navigable. Thenceforwards it rolls majestically down to the sea in a bountiful stream, which never becomes a merely destructive torrent in the rains, and never dwindles away in the hottest summer. If somewhat diminished by irrigation, its volume is forthwith restored by numerous great tributaries; and the wide area of its river basin receives annually a sufficient rainfall to maintain the supply in every part. Embankments are in few places required to restrain its inundations, for the alluvial silt which it spills over its banks year by year affords to the fields a top-dressing of inexhaustible fertility. If one crop be drowned by the flood, the cultivator calculates that his second crop will abundantly requite him.

Shortly after passing the holy city of Benares, the Ganges enters Behar, and after receiving an important tributary, the Són, from the south, passes Patná, and obtains another accession to its volume from the Gandak, which rises in Nepál. Farther to the east, it receives the Kusí, and then, skirting the Rájmahál Hills, turns sharply to the southward, passing near the site of the ruined city of Gaur. By this time it has approached to within 240 miles, as the crow flies, from the sea. About 20 miles farther on, it begins to branch out over the level country, and this spot marks the commencement of the Delta, 220 miles in a straight line, or nearly 300 by the windings of the river, from the Bay of Bengal. The main channel takes the name of the Padmá or Padda, and proceeds in a south-easterly direction, past Pábná to Goálandá, where it is joined by the Jamuná or main stream of the BRAHMAPUTRA. The vast confluence of waters rushes towards the sea, receiving further additions from the hill country on the east, and forming a broad estuary known under the name of the MEGHNA, which enters the Bay of Bengal near Noákháli. This estuary, however, is only the largest and most easterly of a great number of mouths or channels. The most westerly is the HUGLI, which receives the waters of the three westernmost distributary channels that start from the parent Ganges in or near Murshidábád District. Between the Húglí on the west and the Meghná on the east, lies the Delta. The upper angle of it consists of rich and fertile Districts, such

as Murshidábád, Nadiyá, Jessor, and the Twenty-four Parganás. But towards its southern base, resting on the sea, the country sinks into a series of great swamps, intercepted by a network of innumerable channels. This wild waste is known as the Sundarbans, from the *sundrí* tree, which grows in abundance in the seaboard tracts. The most important channel for navigation is the Húglí, on which stands CALCUTTA, about 80 miles from the mouth. Above this city, the navigation is almost entirely conducted by native craft; the modern facilities for traffic by rail, and the increasing shoals in the river, having put an end to the previous steamer communication, which plied until about 1860 to as high up as Allahábád. In the upper portion of its course in the North-Western Provinces, timber and bamboos form the bulk of the river trade; and in the lower part bordering on Bengal, stone, grain, and cotton. Below Calcutta, important boat routes through the Delta connect the Húglí with the eastern branches of the river, both for native craft and steamers. The Ganges is essentially a river of great cities: Calcutta, Monghyr, Patná, Benares, lie on its course below its union with the Jumna and Allahábád at the point of junction.

Till within a recent period, the magnificent stream of the Ganges formed almost the sole channel of traffic between Upper India and the seaboard. The products not only of the river valley, but even the cotton of the Central Provinces, used formerly to be conveyed by this route to Calcutta. But though the opening of the railway has caused a revolution in the channels of trade, heavy goods in bulk still follow the old means of communication; and the Ganges may yet rank as one of the most frequented waterways in the world. In 1877-78, the total imports from the interior into Calcutta were valued at 36 millions sterling, of which 17 millions came *viâ* the Gangetic channels; country boats carrying more than 14 millions, and river steamers (chiefly from the eastwards) 3 millions. The downward traffic, as might be expected, is most brisk in the rainy season, when the river comes down in flood. During the rest of the year the boats make their way back up stream, often without cargoes, either helped by a favourable wind or laboriously towed along the bank. The dimensions of the river traffic of Bengal may be inferred from the following figures, which give the number of boats passing certain registration stations in 1876-77:—At Bámanghátá, on the Circular Canal, 178,627 boats, of which 59,495 were laden; at Húglí, 124,357, of which 73,233 were laden; at Patná, 61,571, of which 44,384 were laden; at Goálanda, 54,329, of which 42,249 were laden; at Sáhibganj, 43,020, of which 30,798 were laden. The river trade of Bengal with the North-Western Provinces and Oudh will be seen from the following statistics for 1877-78:—Imports into Bengal *viâ* the Ganges—oil-seeds, 2,619,818 *maunds;* food grains, 952,521 *maunds;* sugar, 970,132 *maunds;* cotton, 40,192

maunds; exports from Bengal—food grains (chiefly rice), 2,299,797 *maunds*; salt, 481,820 *maunds*. Articles of European commerce, such as wheat, indigo, cotton, and saltpetre, mostly prefer the railway, as also do the imports of Manchester piece-goods. But if we take into consideration the new development of the export trade in oil-seeds, and the growing increase in the interchange of food grains between various parts of the country, it seems probable that the actual amount of traffic on the Ganges by native craft has not at all diminished since the opening of the railway; and the river is not only a rival, but also a feeder to the railway. Stations favourably situated on its banks form centres of collection and distribution for the surrounding country. Such cities as Cawnpore, Allahábád, Benares, and Patná have thus been able to preserve their former importance, while fishing villages like Sáhibganj and Goálanda have by the same means been raised into river marts of the first magnitude.

The catchment basin of the Ganges and its tributaries is bounded on the north by a section of about 700 miles of the Himálayan range, on the south by the Vindhyá Mountains, and on the east by the ranges which separate Bengal from Burma. The vast river basin thus enclosed, embraces 391,100 square miles. The flood discharge of the Ganges at Rájmahál, after it has received all its important tributaries, was formerly estimated at 1,350,000 cubic feet of water per second. Latest calculation: length of main stream of Ganges, 1509 miles by the Húglí route, or 1557 to the Meghná mouth, or with its longest affluent, 1680; breadth at entrance, 20 miles; breadth of channel in dry season, 1¼ to 2¼ miles; depth in dry season, 30 feet; high-flood discharge at Rájmahál, 1,800,000 cubic feet per second; ordinary discharge, 207,000 cubic feet; longest duration of flood, about 40 days. Average discharge at Hardwár, when the river is at its lowest, 7000 cubic feet per second; at Benares, 19,000 cubic feet per second. At the point at which it issues from its snow-bed, the Ganges is 27 feet broad and 15 inches deep, 13,800 feet above sea level. At Gangotri, 10 miles lower, it is 43 feet broad and 18 inches deep; elevation, 10,319 feet. At Bháiroghati the river is 8511 feet above sea level; at Deo Prayág, at its confluence with the Alaknanda, 133 miles from its source, 1953 feet; at Hardwár, 1024 feet; and at Cawnpore, 379 feet above sea level. Average fall from Allahábád to Benares, 6 inches per mile; from Benares to Calcutta, between 4 and 5 inches; from Calcutta to the sea, 1 to 2 inches. The total length of the stream in its different stages, from the source of the Jahnavi to the Húglí mouth is returned as follows:—From the source of the Jahnavi to the junction of the Alaknanda and Bhágirathi rivers, 133 miles; thence to Hardwár, 47 miles; thence to Allahábád, at its confluence with the Jumna, 488 miles; thence to Síbganj, where the Húglí channel

commences in a branch thrown off from the main stream, known as the Bhágirathí, 563 miles; thence to the junction of the Bhágirathí and Jalangí, below which the stream takes the name of the Húglí, 120 miles; thence to Chandernagar, 48 miles; thence to the sea by way of Calcutta, 110 miles; total, 1509 miles. The length from Chandernagar to the sea may be variously stated from 100 to 150, according to the point in the estuary at which the sea is reckoned to commence. The distance here taken (110 miles) ends at the Ságar anchoring buoy. The water of the Ganges begins to rise towards the end of May, and is usually at its maximum in September. The following table, drawn up by Captain Thomas Prinsep (quoted from Thornton), illustrates the rise of water in the river at various places:—

	Greatest known Annual Rise.		Rise in low Seasons.	
	Ft.	In.	Ft.	In.
At Allahábád,	45	6	29	0
,, Benares,	45	0	34	0
,, Colgong,	29	6	28	3
,, Jalangí,	26	0	25	6
,, ,, (according to Rennell),	32	0		
,, Kumárkhálí (not quite certain),	22	6	22	0
,, Agradwíp (Nadiyá),	23	9	23	0
,, Calcutta (independent of tide),	7	0	6	7
,, Dacca (according to Rennell),	14	0	...	

Great changes take place from time to time in the river bed, and alter the face of the country. Extensive islands are thrown up, and attach themselves to the bank; while the river deserts its old bed and seeks a new channel, it may be many miles off. Such changes are so rapid and on so vast a scale, and the corroding power of the current on the bank so irresistible, that it is considered perilous to build any structure of a large or permanent character on the margin. Many decayed or ruined cities attest the alterations in the river bed in ancient times; and within our own days, the main channel which formerly passed Rájmahál has turned away from it, and left the town high and dry, 7 miles from the bank. The scheme of this Gazetteer is to deal with India by its administrative divisions; and much information regarding the Ganges will be found in the articles on the Districts, cities, etc., along its route. For example, a very full account will be given of the HUGLI RIVER, the great commercial mouth of the Ganges. To save repetition, therefore, the foregoing notice only attempts a brief, general description of the course of the river.

Ganges Canal.—An important irrigation work and navigable channel in the North-Western Provinces, passing through the eastern portion of the Upper Doáb, and watering a large tract of country, from Hardwár to Cawnpore, extending from lat. 26° 30′ 30″ to 29° 57′ N., and from long. 78° 13′ to 80° 21′ 15″ E. The plan for this great work originated in the success of the EASTERN JUMNA CANAL, coupled with the

periodical recurrence of drought and famine in the opposite half of the Doáb, which remained unprotected by the distributaries from that main channel of irrigation. Attention was thus directed to the Ganges as affording a constant water supply for a similar undertaking, which should irrigate the eastern portion of the Doáb, from the Siwálik Hills to Cawnpore District. As early as 1827, Captain Debude had proposed a plan for utilizing the waters of the West Káli Nadi, along an ancient line through the Districts of Meerut, Bulandshahr, and Alígarh; but as practical difficulties would have prevented the realization of this scheme, Colonel Colvin in 1836 recommended the examination of the Ganges in the neighbourhood of Hardwár, where it emerges upon the plains from a gorge of the Siwáliks. The terrible famine of 1837-38, which shortly afterwards devastated the Doáb, and caused an enormous loss of life and revenue, directed the thoughts of our Government towards the desirability of providing against similar calamities in future. In 1839, Major (afterward Sir) Proby Cautley was deputed to inspect the Hardwár lowlands, and on his report a committee was appointed to investigate the question. On the 16th of April 1842, the actual works were commenced by opening the excavation between Kankhal and Hardwár. After many delays, caused by administrative changes or alterations of engineering plans, the Ganges Canal in its earliest form was opened on the 8th of April 1854. In 1866, a committee was again appointed to consider the advisability of further modifications; and their deliberations resulted in the construction of several new works, and the continuance of the main line towards Allahabad, by means of a cut from Rájghát, known as the LOWER GANGES CANAL. The canal, as at present constituted, derives its supplies from the Ganges at Hardwár. The main channel then proceeds through the Districts of Sahúranpur and Muzaffarnagar, giving off the Fatehgarh branch in the latter District. Thence it sweeps in a bold curve westward, across the headwaters of the Káli Nadi, and through the heart of Meerut District. Near Begamábád it trends south-eastward, through Bulandshahr and Alígarh, and at Akrábád gives off the Etáwah branch. The main line next continues across the western corner of Etah District, and through the centre of Máinpuri; and after traversing the southern *parganás* of Farrukhábád, rejoins the Ganges at Cawnpore. The Fatehgarh branch, which leaves the main channel in Muzaffarnagar District, proceeds almost parallel with the Ganges through the whole western edge of the Upper Doáb, ending near Anúpshahr in a number of minor distributaries. The Etáwah branch, leaving the main line at Akrabad, runs along the south-western side of the Middle Doáb, and falls into the Jumna above Hamírpur. Supply-branches from the Lower Ganges Canal assist in feeding both the main channel and the Etáwah branch in their lower course. The length of the main canal,

since 1859-60, amounts to 519 miles. The minor branches vary much from time to time, as new portions are opened or old channels disused. The total capital outlay on the canal up to the end of the year 1875-76, amounted to £2,826,480. The total revenue during that year, directly or indirectly due to the canal, was returned at £289,925; of which sum £212,881 consisted of direct payments for water rates, navigation, etc.; while £77,043 was produced by increased land revenue, through the influence of irrigation. The aggregate amount of annual income realized from the opening of the canal to the end of the year 1875-76, amounted to £2,652,009, a sum which hardly falls short of the original capital outlay. Out of this amount, £2,330,190 consisted of direct income from rates, etc.; while £321,819 was due to increased land revenue. Against these figures must be set the working expenses, which amounted to £105,462 during 1875-76; and to £1,400,982 during the whole period from the opening of the canal up to the end of that year. The above data show that the net revenue to the end of 1875-76 amounted to £929,207, exclusive of the increased land revenue; and to £1,251,027, inclusive of increased land revenue. Against the net profit thus calculated must be set a sum of £2,419,912, as charge for interest on capital outlay to the end of the year, being at the rate of 5 per cent. up to 1870-71, and 4½ per cent. since that date. The difference between the net revenue and the interest charge, up to the end of 1875-76, leaves an adverse balance of £1,490,704, excluding land revenue, and £1,168,885, including the increased land revenue. The following statement shows the actual work accomplished during the year 1875-76:—Average water supply at Rúrki (Roorkee) in cubic feet, *kharíf* 5235, *rabí* 4868; area irrigated in acres, *kharíf* 317,325, *rabí* 571,842—total, 889,167; area irrigated per cubic foot of supply, 178 acres; length of distributaries open, 3386 miles; area irrigated per mile of distributary, 262 acres; water rate, £202,813. In calculating the economical value of the canal, it is necessary to take into consideration, not merely the direct relation of revenue and capital, but also the indirect benefits of security against famine, and consequent ultimate insurance of the revenue against losses from non-realization, or actual disbursements for purposes of relief. The falls along the canal have been utilized in part as a motive power for mills, but much of the available power has never yet been employed. Navigation takes place along the entire length of the main canal, and consists in the rafting of timber, or the carrying of merchandise in boats. The rafting is almost entirely confined to the upper portion of the main channel, as far as the point opposite Meerut. The number of boats plying in 1875-76 amounted to 325. Further details as to the agricultural benefits derived from the canal, the principal distributaries, the crops specially irrigated, and the effects of percolation, will

be found under the District notices of Sahāranpur, Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, Bulandshahr, Alígarh, Muttra, Etah, Máinpuri, Etáwah, Farrukhábád, and Cawnpore, all of which see separately.

Ganges Canal, Lower.—An important irrigation work in the North-Western Provinces, designed to water the whole southern portion of the Doáb. The new channel may be regarded as a southward extension of the GANGES CANAL, with which it has direct communication. The headworks draw their supply from the river at Narorá (lat. 27° 47′ N., long. 78° 18′ E.), on the border of Alígarh District, about 4 miles below the Rájghát station of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The main line crosses the Káli Nadi at Nadrái, and, running down the watershed between that stream and the Isan, is conveyed over the latter river and the Cawnpore branch of the Ganges Canal; thence it turns the head of the Pándu river, and, flowing between that channel and the Rind, follows a course south of the East Indian Railway to Allahábád. The present work owes its origin to a committee appointed in 1866 to examine the various projects for strengthening the irrigating power of the Ganges Canal; but the scheme actually adopted is due to the joint efforts of General Strachey, C.S.I., Mr. R. Forrest, Major Jeffreys, and Colonel Brownlow. Under their design, the water for the canal will be raised at the point above mentioned, with a discharge fixed at 3500 cubic feet in the cold weather and 6500 cubic feet in the rains. The main channel commences with a bottom width of 216 feet, a slope of 6 inches per mile, and a full supply depth of 10 feet. A distributary branch will be thrown off at the 26th mile, to water the Káli-Ganges Doáb in Farrukhábád District; and at the 39th mile a supply channel will diverge, to feed the Cawnpore and Etáwah branches of the Ganges Canal, which are intersected by the new line at 29 and 37 miles respectively in their course below Nánu. Henceforth the demands on the water drawn for the older work at Hardwár will cease at these points, and the upper canal will be relieved of irrigation 128 miles above Cawnpore on the branch for that District, and 130 miles on the Etáwah branch. The Lower Ganges main line will then pass on through Etah and Máinpuri Districts, crossing the rivers Isan and Káli by aqueducts in its 34th and 112th miles, and the Cawnpore branch of the Ganges Canal at its 94th mile. Then, heading the Pándu Nadi, the line will cut off a corner of Etáwah District, intersect that of Cawnpore, and, running along a narrow watershed between the Pándu and the Rind to Fatehpur District, will continue in a still-water channel to Allahábád. Through the latter portion of its course, it will interfere but little with the natural drainage of the country; and on approaching the Sasur Khaderi Nála, will skirt the right bank of the Jumna, into which the surplus waters will find their way by a dry ravine. From the Etáwah

branch the Bhognipur line will water the tract between the Sengar and the Jumna. The main line will be navigable to Allahábád ; the Cawnpore branch itself is already fit for that purpose ; and the Etáwah branch will undergo the necessary remodelling. A still-water channel will also connect the town of Fatehgarh with the main line. The original scheme embraced in all 555 miles of new trunk lines, estimated at a total cost of £1,825,845 ; and if we add to this sum the primary cost of the Cawnpore and Etáwah branches, now absorbed by the new project, the capital account would rise to £2,226,523. Estimates return the probable gross income at £258,000 ; and the net income at £195,000, giving a direct profit of 8·8 per cent. From these approximate figures, and the actual cost of the Ganges Canal, it would seem that the total ultimate outlay on this great united system of protective irrigation will not probably exceed the sum of 5 millions sterling. Three divisions of the work were set on foot during the year 1873-74, at Narorá, Kásganj, and Bhongáon, comprising the necessary preparations for 107 miles of main canal and 24 miles of supply channel. The chief engineering feat of the upper portion consists in the weir and head-works at Narorá, which include a solid wall 3800 feet in length, with a section of 10 feet by 9, having 42 weir-sluices, founded on rows of huge square blocks. Among other important works now (1877) completed may be mentioned the approach to the canal head from the river, the embankment and aqueduct across the Káli Nadi, the double regulator at the Cawnpore branch crossing 12 large bridges, and 3 syphon culverts for cross drainage. Amongst the works still (1877) under construction are scouring sluices near the head-works, 2 further syphons, the head of the Fatehgarh branch, a masonry fall into the Káli Nadi escape, and a fall at the junction of the Upper Ganges Canal. The outlay up to April 1, 1877, amounted to an estimated sum of £1,148,000 ; and a further expenditure of about £170,000 will bring the works to a point at which the water may be admitted by the supply channel to feed the Cawnpore and Etáwah branches. Government proposes to open these branches by the 1st of June 1878 ; and during the cold weather of 1878-79 the first small returns in the shape of revenue may be expected to accrue. The original estimate of cost has been increased during the progress of the works, owing to changes of plan and other causes, so that it now (1877) amounts to £2,296,482, exclusive of indirect charges for interest. The revised scheme will bring under irrigation 462,706 acres of land in the *kharíf* or autumn harvest, and 739,620 acres in the *rabí* or spring harvest, as a maximum attainable in course of time. In estimating the probable financial results of this, as of other Indian canals, it must be remembered that, besides the direct benefits from water dues, navigation fees, etc., and the indirect benefits from increased land revenue or other taxes, the canal irrigation acts as an insurance

against famine, thus preventing great ultimate loss to the treasury, and affording a means of safety for thousands among the poorer population in seasons of drought. For further particulars, see Cawnpore, Etáwah, Farrukhábád, Fatehpur, and Máinpuri Districts.

Gangiru.—Agricultural town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 18′ N., long. 77° 15′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 5117, being 2613 Hindus and 2504 Muhammadans. Distant from Muzaffarnagar 35 miles south-west. Straggling village, with many brick ruins; on a raised site, but containing numerous undrained water holes. Canal channel to the east of the town, and another 1 mile west.

Gangoh.—Town in Sahāranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 46′ 20″ N., long. 77° 18′ E.; area, 99 acres; pop. (1872), 10,982, including 5049 Hindus and 5930 Musalmáns. Distant from Saháranpur 23 miles south-west. Consists of an old and a new quarter, the former founded by the legendary hero, Rájá Gang, from whom the town derives its name, and the latter by the Muhammadan saint, Shaikh Abdul Kaddús, who gives his title to the western suburb, where his tomb still stands in the midst of many other sacred shrines. Surrounded by groves of mango and other trees; narrow, tortuous streets, now paved and drained with brick-work; good water; public health generally above the average. School-house, charitable dispensary, police station, post office. Little trade; prosperity confined to money-lenders. During the Mutiny of 1857, Gangoh was frequently threatened by the rebel Gújars under the self-styled Rájá Fathná; but Mr. H. D. Robertson and Lieutenant Boisragon attacked and utterly defeated them towards the end of June. An income of £519 was raised for local purposes in 1872-73, being at the rate of 9½d. per head of population.

Gangotri.—Mountain temple in Garhwál State, Punjab. Lat. 30° 59′ N., long. 78° 59′ E. Stands on the right bank of the BHAGIRATHI or GANGES, 8 miles from its source, in a small bay or inlet, surrounded by a wall of unhewn stone. The temple is a square building, about 20 feet high, containing small statues of Ganga, Bhágirathi, and other mythological personages connected with the spot. Pilgrims visit the shrine as the goal of their journey, regarding this point as the source of the holy river; but no houses exist for their accommodation, and comparatively few reach so far up the course of the stream. Flasks filled at Gangotri with the sacred water are sealed by the officiating Bráhmans, and conveyed to the plains as valuable treasures. Elevation above sea level, about 10,319 feet.

Gángpur.—Tributary State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. Lat. 21° 47′ 5″ to 22° 32′ 20″ N., long. 85° 10′ 15″ to 85° 34′ 35″ E.; area, 2484 square miles; pop. (1872), 73,637. Bounded on the north by Lohárdagá District and the State of Jashpur; on the south by the States of

Bonái, Sambalpur, and Bámrá; on the east by Singbhúm District; and on the west by Ráigarh, a chiefship of the Central Provinces.

Physical Aspects.—Gángpur consists of a long undulating tableland, about 700 feet above the sea, gradually sloping down in the north from the higher plateau of Chutiá Nágpur; the southern portion is separated from Bámrá State in the Central Provinces by the Mahávíra Hills, which rise abruptly from the plain. The whole tableland is broken by detached ranges and isolated peaks, rising to a height of 2240 feet. The chief rivers of Gángpur are the Ib, the Sankh, and the South Koel; the two latter unite in the east of the State, and, after a southerly course, fall into the sea in Cuttack District as the Bráhmani. Diamonds and gold are occasionally found in the Ib; coal exists in Hingír, but is not yet worked. The principal jungle products are lac, *tásár* silk, resin, and catechu. Tigers, leopards, wolves, bison, etc. abound.

History.—Gángpur, with Bonái and eight neighbouring States now attached to the Central Provinces, was ceded to the British by the treaty of Deogáon in 1803, but was restored to the Rájá of Nágpur by special agreement in 1806. It reverted to the British under the provisional engagement with Madhojí Bhonslá (Apá Sáhib) in 1818, and was finally ceded to us in 1826. Gángpur yields the Rájá an annual income of £2000; annual tribute to the British Government, £50.

Population.—Total population, 73,637 in 1872, being 37,751 males and 35,886 females; density of population, 30 per square mile; number of villages, 601, or 0·24 per square mile; number of houses, 13,977, or 6 per square mile; persons per village, 123; average number of persons per house, 5·3. Classified according to race—Pure aborigines (Dravidian and Kolarian), 45,208, or 61·3 per cent. of total population; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 9843, or 13·4 per cent.; Hindus, 18,349, or 24·9 per cent.; Muhammadans, 231, or 0·3 per cent. Of the Dravidian races the Bhuiyás are the most numerous, amounting in 1872 to 13,828; the Uráons numbered 10,069. For a full account of these tribes, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 192-195. The residence of the Rájá is at Suádí, on the Ib, the valley of which is very fertile. Chief crops—rice, sugar-cane, oil-seeds, and tobacco. Villages in Gángpur are held either on feudal tenures or on farming leases. The feudal tenures date from early times, when the vassals of the chief received grants of land in consideration of rendering military service, and making certain payments in kind. These payments have been commuted for a quit-rent in money; but the attendance of the vassals with rusty matchlocks or bows and arrows is still enforced when the chief moves through his domains.

In the hamlets, the priests of the aboriginal deities rank next to the Gáontiá; their duties are to decide boundary disputes, to propitiate the gods of the mountains and forest, and to adjudicate on charges of

witchcraft. Since the State came under British rule, human sacrifices have been abolished. The police force is purely indigenous. The feudatories, with one exception, form a rural militia.

Ganguriá.—Village and headquarters of a police circle, in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 12′ 22″ N., long. 88° 8′ 48″ E.; population under 5000.

Ganjám (*Ganj-ámad*, 'a granary' or 'depôt').—A District in the extreme north-east of the Madras Presidency, lying between 18° 15′ and 20° 15′ N. lat., and between 83° 49′ and 85° 15′ E. long. Area (Parliamentary Return, 1876-77), 8313 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1871, 1,520,088. Bounded on the north by Purí District in Orissa; on the east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south by Vizagapatam District; and on the west by the estates (*zamíndárís*) of Kaláhándí, Patná, and Jáipur (Jeypore).

Physical Aspects.—The District is mountainous and rocky, but interspersed with valleys and fertile plains. In shape it resembles an hourglass, contracted in the centre, where the Eastern Gháts nearly meet the sea, and widening out into undulating plains in the north and south. Pleasant groves of trees give to the scenery a greener appearance than is usually met with in the plains farther to the south; whilst the rugged mountains, frequently covered with dense jungle, relieve the eye. A chain of fresh-water or brackish lakes runs all along the coast, being separated from the sea by narrow strips of sand. Salt swamps and backwaters are also not uncommon. The chain of the Eastern Gháts, known as the Máliyás, which occupies the western portion of the District, rises to an average height of about 2000 feet. The principal peaks are—Mahendragiri (4923 feet), Singháráj (4976), and Deodongá (4534). The form of the Máliyá Mountains is usually conical, and they are more or less wooded along the sides; whilst the fertile valleys lying between are either cultivated by the rude aboriginal tribes who inhabit the tract, or afford pasture to large herds of buffaloes, cows, or goats. The passes which lead from the low country of Ganjám into the Máliyás along their entire length of some 140 miles, are very numerous; but only one, the Kalinga Ghát, possesses a road available for wheeled traffic. Many of the passes are, however, available for elephants and other beasts of burden, although the paths are generally rocky, rugged, and steep. The chief rivers are—(1) the Rushikulya in the north, which rises in the hills beyond the District boundary, and, after a course of about 100 miles, falls into the sea near Ganjám town; the river is not ordinarily navigable, but rafts can be floated down it in the flood season between June and November: (2) the Vamsadhára rises in the Jáipur (Jeypore) Hills, and, after a course of about 145 miles, falls into the Bay of Bengal near Kalingapatam in the south of the District; more or less navigable for about 65 miles from its mouth, but as

the banks are steep and fringed with trees, the want of a towing-path is a great obstruction to navigation: (3) the Lánguliyá takes its rise in Kaláhándí, and, after flowing for about 115 miles, enters the sea near Máphuz Bandar. Besides these rivers, there are numerous mountain streams and torrents, which are utilized for the purposes of irrigation. The banks of the rivers are usually steep and high, and there is in all of them a great tendency to accumulate silt. Their channels dry up in the hot season, but during the rains between June and November they are usually in full flood and frequently overflow the country. Owing to the vicinity of the Eastern Gháts to the sea, however, the floods subside with rapidity, and from the same cause the rise of the waters in the rivers is frequently so great as to cause considerable damage to property, and not unfrequently loss of life. Sea and river fisheries form an important industry, and the fishing castes are returned at nearly 50,000, or 3·3 per cent. of the Hindu population. Pearl oysters, but of an inferior quality, are found in the Sonapur backwater, and in the canal which runs from the Chilká Lake to the Rushikulya river. Iron-ore, limestone, building stone, sandstone, talc, and crystal comprise the mineral products. Timber forests are numerous and extensive, consisting chiefly of *sál*, with satin-wood, sandal, and ebony, in smaller quantities. Bees-wax, honey, turmeric, and myrabolans are jungle products, and important articles of commerce, being sold by the hill Kandhs to the low-country merchants. Wide grazing grounds exist, which afford pasturage to large herds of cattle. Wild beasts are numerous in the hills.

History.—Ganjám anciently formed part of the southern kingdom of Kalinga. Its early history is involved in obscurity, and it was not until the long line of Gajapati or Ganga-vansa kings (1132-1532) occupied Orissa that the adjoining District of Ganjám was annexed to that Province. Owing to the nature of the country, Ganjám was only nominally reduced by the Musalmáns, who overran Orissa for the first time about 1560. In 1641, the king of the Kutabsháhi kingdom sent a deputy, Sher Muhammad Khán, to Chicacole (Chikakol) to rule over the country as its first Faujdár. The present Ganjám District formed under the Musalmáns a part of the Chicacole Circar, and the country south of the Rushikulya river at Ganjám, as far as Kásibugá, was known by the name of the Ichhápúr Province. Different Faujdárs and Náibs continued to rule over the Chicacole Circar until 1753, in which year the Northern Circars were granted to the French by Salábat Jang, to cover the pay and equipment of the French auxiliaries in his service. M. de Bussy, who managed the affairs of the French at Hyderabad, proceeded to the Northern Circars in person in 1757, in order to secure the revenues on behalf of his native allies. After reducing the country as far as Gúmsoor, on the south-west border of

Ganjám, M. de Bussy was obliged to return, being recalled by M. Lally, the Governor of Pondicherri, who required his services at the siege of Madras (1758). In 1759, an expeditionary force under Colonel Forde, sent from Bengal by Lord Clive, was successful in taking Masulipatam; and upon the key of their position in the Northern Circars falling into the hands of the English, the French found themselves obliged to abandon Ganjám and their other factories in the north. In 1765, the Northern Circars were granted to the English by the Mughal Emperor's *firmán*, dated the 12th August 1765; but it was not until the 12th November 1766, that Nizám Alí, the Subah of the Deccan, agreed to ratify this firmán by actually ceding the country to the English. In August 1768, Mr. Edward Cotsford took possession of Ganjám as the first English Resident, and founded an English factory there, which he secured by means of a small fort. From 1768 down to 1802, the Ichhápur Province was ruled by a succession of Residents, Chiefs in Council, and Collectors; and in the latter year, the country south of the Púndi river, as far as Chicacole, was formed into the present District of Ganjám. The earlier records (1768-1802) of the District show that the *zamíndárs* were accustomed only to pay their tributes under actual pressure; and that the country was continually in a state of disturbance and confusion. Plunder, rapine, murders, and incendiarism were common; and one *zamíndár* had to be reduced by troops. In 1815, a severe epidemic fever prevailed in the town of Ganjám, and carried off some 20,000 people in the course of the three years that it raged in the District. In 1816, the Pindárís came down upon the Párla Kimedi *zamíndárí*, and spread fire and sword from Ichhápur to Ganjám. In 1819, the disturbances in the Párla Kimedi and Mohirry *zamíndárís* had risen to such a height, that Government sent Mr. Thackeray to Ganjám as Special Commissioner to devise means for quieting the country. It needed the presence of a strong body of regular troops to crush the spirit of insubordination which had been fostered in the District by many years of a weak and vacillating policy. In 1834-35, the Párla Kimedi campaign took place, Brigadier-General Taylor in command. The judicious measures of Mr. George Russell, the Special Commissioner in this and the two succeeding Gúmsúr campaigns of 1835-37, did much to place the District on a more satisfactory footing, by reducing the two most refractory and influential *zamíndárs* in the District. The first contact of the English with the aboriginal Kandhs occurred in 1836, when it was discovered that they were addicted to the practice of human sacrifice (*Meriah*). A special Agency, under European officers, was deputed to the tract, and succeeded in inducing the Kandhs to abandon the rite. In 1865, a partial rising of the Kandhs took place, but it was of an unimportant character, and was suppressed without the aid of

regular troops. Since then the District has enjoyed undisturbed peace. (For further details, see my *Orissa*, vol. i. 18; ii. 49-53.)

Population.—A Census of the District was taken in 1871, which returned a total population of 1,520,088, inclusive of the hills. Excluding these sparsely populated tracts, the population of the plains amounted to 1,388,976—viz. 695,295 males and 693,681 females. The population is almost entirely composed of Hindus, who are returned at 1,513,673, or 99·6 per cent., divided as follows:—Vishnuvites, 1,163,002; Sivaites, 130,925; Lingáyats, 5743; other Hindus, 214,003. The Muhammadan population numbers 4826, comprising 3422 Sunnis, 177 Shiás, 14 Wahábís, and 1213 'others.' Christians number 1413, of whom 149 are Europeans, 205 Eurasians, 679 native Christians, and 10 'others.' Buddhists and Jains number 45; and all others, 501. The aboriginal tribes inhabiting the hill tracts are principally Kandhs (55,735) and Saurás (21,656), who have now nearly all embraced some form of Hinduism, and are included in the general number of Hindus returned above. Ethnically, the Uriyás form two-thirds of the District population, the remainder being for the most part Telugus. Their manners and customs differ, and they speak a distinct language. The Uriyás are chiefly found in the north of the District, extending as far south as Párla Kimedi. South of Kásibugá, and throughout the Chicacole Division, the larger number of the inhabitants are Telugus. There is, however, no clearly defined line between the country occupied by the two races. The principal towns in Ganjám are—BERHAMPUR (1871), 21,670; PARLA KIMEDI, 15,958; CHICACOLE, 15,587; ICHHAPUR, 12,493; BARUVA, 6739; RAGHUNADHAPURAM, 5206; KALINGAPATAM, 4675; ASKA, 4225; GANJAM, 4163; RUSSELLKONDA, 2625; and GOPALPUR, 2416. Forty-three other towns contain upwards of 2000 inhabitants. The only municipalities are Berhampúr and Chicacole.

Agriculture. — Principal crops: — (1) Cereals—rice, *cholam*, *ragi*, wheat, *kambu*; (2) Pulses and oil-seeds — gingelly, castor-oil, rape, *methi*, *dál*, and several other varieties of gram; (3) Fibres—cotton, hemp, flax, jute; (4) Miscellaneous — sugar-cane, tobacco, chillies, indigo, onions, garlic. Agricultural operations commence in June, during which month the rains of the south-west monsoon usually begin to fall. In June the early dry grains and paddy seed (rice) intended for transplanting are sown. Rice is sometimes sown broadcast, but is usually transplanted from specially prepared seed-beds. In July and September an ample and continued supply of water is essential to the growth of the young plants. The reaping of the rice or paddy crop commences soon after the 1st November, and sometimes lasts until the 15th January, according as the season has been early or late. An early season betokens, as a rule, a favourable harvest. The dry grain crops (*i.e.*, those grown upon unirrigated land) and early paddy

are reaped between the 1st September and the 15th October. The after crop of dry grains continues, however, to be reaped from the middle of February to the beginning of April. A second crop of rice in Ganjám is almost unknown; it occurs, however, in a tract of land not far from Ichhápur, bordering upon the sea. Neither cotton nor fibre cultivation is pursued in Ganjám, to the decrease of food grains. The sugar-cane grown in Ganjám is of excellent quality, and is said to be the best in India. It demands more care and attention, however, than any other crop, and is never grown for two years in succession on the same land. The ground requires to be well manured with oil-cake or other suitable manure. Sugar-cane is estimated to require one-third more water than rice, and takes ten months before it reaches maturity. In spite of these drawbacks, however, the crop is one which is exceedingly profitable to the peasant who can afford to grow it. Sugar-cane is chiefly cultivated about Aska.

Condition of the People.—The total area of the District (1876) now ascertained by the Revenue Survey, amounts to 8500 square miles, of which 3359 are comprised in the Máliyá Hill Tracts, and 5141 form the plains portion. Of this latter, about one-third is returned as under cultivation, one-third as cultivable, and the remainder as uncultivable waste. Rice occupies more than two-thirds of the area under cultivation. The peasantry, as a class, are poor, and generally in debt to the money-lenders, forestalling their crops by borrowing, or by selling the produce at a cheap rate for payment in advance. An average holding consists of about 8 acres, paying a rental of about £2. Wages have increased of late years. The average rates from 1871 to 1876 were, for ordinary labourers, from 2½d. to 3d. per day; for women, from 1½d. to 2d. per day; and for blacksmiths and carpenters, 6d. to 9d. Prices of rice and food grains have risen to more than double the rates prevailing in 1850, and in the case of rice, to treble the former rates. The rates in 1876, per Madras *garce* of 9874 lbs., were as follow:—Best rice, £32; common rice, £26, 14s.; wheat, £29; *ragi*, £13, 6s. Tenures are of three kinds—(1) *Rayatwári*, or small farms held by individuals direct from Government; (2) *kosht-guta*, in which whole villages unite in a system of holding lands in common, direct from Government, with joint responsibility for rent; (3) *mustazárí*, or the farming-out system, which is confined to the *zamíndárí* tracts. By the last system lands are put up to auction, either in lots or in entire villages, and knocked down to the highest bidder, who is left to make what profit he can out of the actual cultivators of the land.

Natural Calamities.—Famines, caused by flood and drought, are the principal natural calamities to which the District is liable. The great famine of 1865-66 was principally confined to the northern portion of the District, but its ravages did not reach the same intensity as in the

Orissa Districts. The famine was caused by the failure of the rains following upon two years of partial scarcity in 1863 and 1864. It is estimated that 60,000 persons perished, either of starvation or of diseases induced by privation.

Communications, Manufactures, etc.—The District contains 661 miles of made road in the plains, costing an annual expenditure of £7675; besides 323 miles of road in the hill country, maintained at a cost of about £700 a year. A tidal canal, 9 miles long, connects the Chilká Lake with the Rushikulya river. Salt manufacture is a Government monopoly, and is carried on at Ganjám, Náupáda, and Vomarávilli, yielding a Government revenue of over £200,000 per annum.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Collector-Magistrate, who is the chief executive and revenue officer, aided by 3 European Assistants, a judge, a superintendent of police, and a staff of subordinate English and native officials. The Government revenue exhibits a steady increase. In 1805-6, the total revenue amounted to £88,512, and the expenditure to £6143; in 1850-51, the revenue was £136,144, and the expenditure £22,325; in 1860-61, the revenue was £216,196, and the expenditure £23,970; in 1870-71, the revenue amounted to £285,397, and the expenditure to £20,710; while by 1875-76, the revenue had increased to £338,705, and the expenditure to £28,123. The principal items are salt and land, the former having yielded in 1875-76 a total of £196,396, and the latter of £117,348. For the protection of person and property, there are 27 magisterial and 13 civil and revenue courts in the District. The regular District police numbered 1087 officers and men of all ranks in 1871, costing £13,270. During the year they made 5127 arrests, and obtained convictions against 2389 persons. The average daily number of prisoners in jail was 798. Murders are unusually frequent in Ganjám District, no less than 26 having occurred in 1875. The other prevalent crimes are housebreaking and theft. Education is in a very backward state, only 3·3 per cent. of the population of the plains being able to read and write. In 1875, there were in the plains 334 schools maintained or aided by the State, and attended by 6909 pupils, besides 17 hill schools, attended by about 860 boys.

Ganjám.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 22′ 27″ N., long. 85° 2′ 52″ E.; containing a population (1871) of 4163, and 1298 houses. A seaport, formerly the capital of the District to which it gives its name, situated at the mouth of the Rushikulya river, 697 miles north-east of Madras, 315 miles south-west of Calcutta. The town itself and the remains of the old pentagon fort are on a rising slope; but to north of the town the ground is low and feverish. It was formerly a seat of considerable trade, and of a Factory and Fort (1768) presided over by a Chief and Council; but since the removal of the headquarters of

the District in 1815, it has declined in size and importance. The removal was caused by an epidemic fever, which carried off a large proportion of its inhabitants, both European and native. The sanitary condition of the town has been much improved of late. While it remained the chief town, Ganjám was remarkable for the magnificence of its European residences. Some of these still exist, as also the remains of the old forts (see my *Orissa*, vol. i. p. 17). The Government salt manufacture forms now the principal industry. The fort of Ganjám is situated at the mouth of the Rushikulya river, but has no harbour, and the heavy surf and constant shifting of the sandbanks render it difficult of access. There is a mud dock for the repair of native vessels. European steamers occasionally visit the port. The chief trade consists of the export of rice. During the ten years ending 1876, the annual average number of ships calling at Ganjám was 21, with a tonnage of 7828. Value of exports, £30,570; imports, £2065.

Ganjám.—River, Madras.—*See* RUSHIKULYA.

Ganjám.—Suburb of SERINGAPATAM, in Mysore District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 24′ N., long. 76° 47′ E. It occupies the eastern or upper portion of the large island in the Káveri (Cauvery) river, on which Seringapatam is built. It was established by Tipú Sultán, who transported hither thousands of families from Síra. Now the most thriving part of the island, the residence of several well-to-do merchants, with manufactures of cotton cloth and paper. The Karigháta *játra* or festival held in February or March is annually attended by 20,000 persons.

Gantang.—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over the ránge dividing Kunáwar from Chinese territory. Lat. 31° 38′ N., long. 78° 47′ E. The highest part lies within the limit of perpetual snow. Scenery wild and rugged; the Rishi Gantang Mountain rising over the pass to a height of 21,229 feet above sea level, while the crest of the pass itself has an elevation of 18,295 feet. Fuel can be obtained with great difficulty, and the pass is consequently but little frequented.

Gantúr (*Guntoor*).—*Táluk* in Kistna District, Madras. Houses, 53,503; pop. (1871), 126,997, viz. 64,148 males and 62,849 females. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 114,780, including 67,484 Sivaites, 44,822 Vishnuvites, and 3064 Lingáyats. The Muhammadans numbered 9580, including 8013 Sunnis, 342 Shiás, and 6 Wahábís; Christians, 637 (chiefly Roman Catholics). No Buddhists nor Jains. Chief town, GANTUR.

Gantúr (*Guntoor*).—Chief town of above *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras; situated on the Grand Trunk Road, about 46 miles from Masulipatam. Lat. 16° 17′ 42″ N., long. 80° 29′ E.; containing 4480 houses and (1871) 18,033 inhabitants. The headquarters of the sub-collector and the District judge of Kistna; municipal revenue, £2385; incidence

of taxation, 2s. 7½d. per head. Considerable trade in grain and cotton. Four cotton steam-screw presses. A branch of the Bank of Madras is located in the town.

Gantúr (Guntoor) was the capital of a Circar (Sarkár) under the Muhammadans. It was ceded to the French by the Nizám in 1753, by Muzaffar Jang. At the time of the cession of the NORTHERN CIRCARS to the English in 1766, Gantúr was specially exempted during the life of Basálat Jang, whose personal *jágír* it was. In 1778, the English rented it from him, but it was given up by order of the Governor-General in 1780. In 1788, it came again into British possession, and the cession was finally confirmed in 1803.

Ganutiá.—Town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 52′ 30″ N., long. 87° 52′ 45″ E. Situated on the north bank of the river Mor, and famous as the centre of the silk industry of Bírbhúm. The Ganutiá factory was established in 1786, by Mr. Frushard, a merchant, who engaged to supply the East India Company with silk at fixed rates. Mr. Frushard's story is typical of the 'private adventurers' of the last century. It is told at length in the *Annals of Rural Bengal*, p. 357, *et seq.*, 5th edition. He met with much opposition from the District officials in his endeavours to become a producer of Bírbhúm silk on a large scale. The natives charged him the highest prices for everything, and the Company allowed him the smallest. At length, in 1790, he was compelled to make a final appeal to the Government for relief; and in 1791, Lord Cornwallis commanded all his arrears of revenue to be remitted, and his rent to be reduced by about one-half. Thus relieved, Mr. Frushard began to prosper. He converted the forest and waste around Ganutiá into thriving and prosperous villages, and founded little tributary factories throughout the whole north-eastern jungle of Bírbhúm. His factory, rebuilt several times, now forms the most imposing edifice in that District, and is the property of an English firm in Calcutta. The single process of winding off the cocoons employs 2400 artisans, and it has been calculated that the factory supports 15,000 persons; its average annual outlay was unofficially returned in 1868 at about £72,000.

Garag (*Gadag*).—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Dhárwár District, Bombay; 43 miles east of Dhárwár town. Lat. 15° 24′ 50″ N., long. 75° 40′ E.; pop. (1872), 10,319. Together with the neighbouring town of Betigeri, Garag forms a municipality, with a municipal revenue (1874-75) of £1182; rate of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head of the joint population (19,035) within municipal limits. Garag is a flourishing town, with considerable trade in raw cotton and cotton and silk fabrics, the cotton trade alone amounting to upwards of £50,000 a year. There is a sub-judge's court and a post office, together with the chief revenue and police offices of the Subdivision; a weekly market is held.

Garái (*Gorai*).—The name given to the upper reaches of the Madhumatí, the largest and most important river in Jessor District, Bengal. The Garái is one of the principal channels by which the waters of the Ganges are carried to the sea; its chief tributary is the Kumár, which was formerly itself the main stream, the Garái being then a feeder. Below Kushtiá, the Garái throws off several cross streams towards the Kumár, the most considerable being the Káliganga. During the rains so much water flows through this channel into the Kumár that at Rámnagar, near Mágura, the latter has to get rid of the surplus, and discharges part of its waters back again into the Garái channel. But in the cold season, when but little water comes down the Kumár, this cross stream flows in the opposite direction, and brings down the waters of the Garái towards Mágura with the Nabagangá. The Garái flows in a southerly direction from Ganespur to Haripur, about 35 miles; it is 420 yards wide in the rains, and navigable by steamers all the year round.

Garamli Moti.—One of the petty States in South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £200, of which £19 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda and £2 to Junágarh.

Garamli Náni.—One of the petty States in South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £150, of which a tribute of £19 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Garaspur.—Town and fort in Gwalior State, Central India. Lat. 23° 40′ N., long. 78° 9′ E. Noted for some fine ancient buildings elaborately sculptured, in the sandstone of the neighbouring hills.

Garden Reach.—A suburb of Calcutta; situated on the Húglí, 3 miles south of the city. Lat. 22° 32′ 35″ N., long. 88° 21′ 40″ E. The Peninsular and Oriental Navigation Company and the Messageries Maritimes have large establishments here, where passengers for Europe by their mail steamers embark. The small forts of Alígarh, on the left or Garden Reach side of the river, and Tanná, on the opposite bank, were taken by Lord Clive in the recapture of Calcutta, December 1756. Branch dispensary. The suburb was long a favourite place of residence of the European inhabitants of Calcutta, and contains many fine houses, situated in large 'compounds.' These houses are said to have been built between 1768 and 1780. The residence of the ex-King of Oudh has been fixed here by the Government, and he occupies a series of magnificent mansions on the river bank, with menagerie and pleasure-grounds attached.

Gargariba.—Town in Maldah District, Bengal.—*See* HAIATPUR.

Garha.—Ancient town in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces; 90 miles south-east of Ságar (Saugor). Lat. 23° 10′ N., long.

79° 56′ 30″ E.; pop. (1876), 2588. Formerly the capital of the Gond dynasty of Garha Mándla, whose ruined keep, built about 1100 A.D., by Madan Sinh, and known as the Madan Mahál, still crowns the low granite range, along the foot of which the town stretches for about 2 miles. Under the Mahál, to the west, is the beautiful Ganga Ságar tank, and near it the large sheet of water called the Bái Ságar. Garha has an excellent Government school, with about 100 scholars. The trade is insignificant, its decline dating from the removal of the Gond dynasty to Singaurgarh. The Garha mint, which coined an inferior rupee called the Bálá Sháhí, formerly current throughout Bundelkhand, was in full operation when Mr. Daniel Leckie passed through the place in 1790.

Garha.—A petty State in the Gúna (Goona) Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Present Rájá, Bijái Sinh.

Garha Kalán.—Village in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 1214, consisting chiefly of Bráhmans and Chamárs. Founded about 500 years ago, and burnt during the Mutiny by troops of the rebel Náráyan Ráo of Karwí, in revenge for the inability or unwillingness of the inhabitants to provide supplies.

Garhákota.—The chief town of a tract of the same name in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 47′ N., long. 79° 11′ 30″ E.; situated in an angle formed by the rivers Sonár and Gadháiri, 27 miles east of Ságar; about 1435 feet above sea level; pop. (1876), 9085. It was probably founded by the Gonds, who held it until about 1629, when a Rájput chief from Bundelkhand, named Chandra Sáh, expelled them, and built the fort. In 1703, Hirde Sáh, son of the famous Chhatra Sál, the Bundela Rájá of Panná, took the fort, giving the Rájput chief in lieu the single village of Naiguwán, in Rehlí, still held (1872) at a quit-rent by a descendant of Chandra Sáh. Hirde Sáh built another town east of the fort, on the other side of the river, and called it after himself, Hirdenagar. Five years after his death, which happened in 1739, dissensions arose between Subhá Sinh and his younger brother, Prithví Sinh. The latter invited the Peshwá to his assistance, promising in return a fourth of the revenues, and by these means succeeded in constituting himself ruler of the town and tract of Garhákota. In 1810, the Rájá of Nágpur invested the fort. Mardan Sinh, a descendant of Prithví Sinh, was killed in a skirmish, and his son, Arjun Sinh, applied to Sindhia, offering to cede one-half of the territory in payment for his protection. Sindhia accordingly despatched an army under Colonel Jean Baptiste, who defeated the Nágpur troops, and retained Málthon and Garhákota for Sindhia, leaving for Arjun Sinh the country of Sháhgarh, with other territory. Baptiste remained for some time at Garhákota, as governor of the fort. In 1819, how-

ever, Arjun Sinh seized the fort by treachery, and held it for six months, when he was ejected by a British force under General Watson. From that time the English administered the country on behalf of Sindhia, till in 1861 an exchange was effected, and Garhákota became British territority.

Garhákota really consists of two towns, divided by the river Sonár—Garhákota and Hirdenagar, in the latter of which all the trade of the place is carried on. The chief manufactures are red cloths called *ádhí* and *pathí*, worn chiefly by women. *Gur*, or coarse sugar, is largely produced and exported; and grain, especially rice and wheat, sent both north and south. Besides the market held every Friday for the sale of grain, cattle, and native and English cloth, there is a large cattle fair, beginning on the 18th January, and lasting for six weeks, which is attended by about 30,000 persons from Gwalior, Bhopal, Bundelkhand, and most Districts of the Central Provinces. In the year 1868-69, the imports of Garhákota amounted to £16,958, the exports to £20,068. There is a District post office, and schools for boys and girls. The fort is solidly constructed on a lofty eminence east of the town, between the rivers Sonár and Gadháiri, with an artificial moat on its unprotected side. The inner walls enclose a space of 11 acres, mostly covered with buildings. These, however, are in ruins, as also are the outer walls and bastions, which were partly levelled by sappers, after Sir Hugh Rose captured the fort in 1858. About 2 miles north of the town, on the borders of the GARHAKOTA RAMNA, stand the remains of a large summer palace built by Mardan Sinh. The square tower is still in fair preservation. At the base, each side measures about 15 feet; and the tower rises to the height of 100 feet, in 6 storeys, each slightly tapering upwards. There is a winding stone staircase the whole way up. Near these ruins Sir Herbert Maddock, when Agent to the Governor-General at Ságar (Saugor), built a large flat-roofed house, which has lately been placed in charge of the Forest Department.

Garhákota Ramná.—Teak forest in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Area, 6 square miles.

Garhauli.—Rural town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 4501. Distant from Hamírpur 35 miles. Large Chandel tank, now nearly silted up, testifies to former importance. Two annual fairs, *halkáhbandi* school.

Garhbetá.—Subdivision of Midnapur District, Bengal; situated between 22° 34′ 30″ and 22° 57′ N. lat., and between 87° 6′ and 87° 50′ 45″ E. long. Pop. (1872), 354,486, of whom 311,488, or 87·9 per cent., are Hindus; 20,514, or 5·8 per cent., Muhammadans; 18 Christians; and 22,466, or 6·3 per cent., of other denominations. Number of villages, 1474, with 63,511 houses. Density of population, 546 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·27; inhabitants per

village, 240; houses per village, 98; inmates per house, 5·6. The Subdivision comprises the *thánás* or police circles of Garhbetá, Chandrakoná, and Ghátál. In 1870-71, it contained one magisterial and revenue court; the regular police force numbered 67 men; the village watch, 420; cost of Subdivisional administration, £1516.

Garhborí.—*Parganá* in Chánda District, Central Provinces, containing 129 villages, with an area of 576 square miles. A hilly and thickly wooded tract, intersected from north to south by four branches of the Andhárí, and rendered picturesque by the magnificent tanks or lakes. The soil is chiefly red, and devoted to rice and sugar-cane. The population mostly consists of Korís and Mánás.

Garhborí.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; on a branch of the Andhárí river, 16 miles north-north-west of Múl. Lat. 20° 18′ N., long. 79° 38′ 30″ E. Manufactures a *sárí* (native female garment) of a peculiar pattern, and produces excellent *pán*. The houses cluster round a fortified hill, with forests on all sides; and near the town are quarries of freestone and limestone. Garhborí has Government schools for boys and girls, and a police outpost.

Garhchirolí.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; on left bank of the Wainganga river, 23 miles east-north-east of Múl. Lat. 20° 11′ N., long. 80° 3′ E. Brisk trade in cotton, cotton cloths, *tasar* cocoons and thread, jungle produce, carts, and salt. Government schools for boys and girls, and police outpost.

Garhdiwála.—Town in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 44′ 30″ N., long. 75° 47′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 3611. Scene of an important fair, in honour of Devi, held in March in September. Average attendance, 20,000 persons.

Garhgáon.—Ruined town and fort in Síbságar District, Assam. The earliest seat of government of the Aham princes, and the capital of their kingdom till the prosperity of the dynasty began to wane, when it was transferred to Rangpur in the same District about 1698. The fort and palace of Garhgáon are situated on the banks of the Dikhu river, to the south-east of Síbságar town. The fort had bastions at the corners, but they are now destroyed. The magazine was situated a short distance east of the fort. The royal palace, one of the oldest buildings in the Province, is described by Robinson, in his *Descriptive Account of Assam*, as having been 'surrounded by a brick wall about 2 miles in circumference; but the whole town and its suburbs appear to have extended over many square miles of country. The ruins of gateways, built chiefly of masonry, are still to be seen within the fortified circumvallations which surrounded the town. It may be observed that one of the gateways is composed principally of large blocks of stone bearing marks of iron crampings, which show that they once belonged to far more ancient edifices. From this evidence alone,

were there no other, it might safely be presumed that, long antecedent to the conquest of the Ahams, the country had been inhabited by a race far advanced in some of the arts of civilised life.' This ancient building is fast falling into complete ruin, though not altogether by the hand of time, for the Survey Report for 1867-68 states: 'It is a great pity that the Assam Company are allowed to carry away the bricks; they have already pulled down the gates, a portion of the palace, and the wall enclosing the palace.'

Garhi (also known as *Bháisa Khirí*).—Petty State in the Deputy Bhíl (Bheel) Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. It consists of 3 villages in Dharamporí, for which the chief pays a small tribute, and is responsible for all robberies. The present holder is Nahar Sinh.

Garhi-Adu-Shah.—Government town in Shikárpur District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 1327, mainly agricultural: Muhammadans, of Súmra, Cháchar, and Katpar tribes, 790; Hindus, chiefly Bráhmans, Lohános, and Sonáros, 537. One of the Grand Trigonometrical Survey pillars is set up here.

Garhi Yásin.—Municipal town in Shikárpur District, Sind. Lat. 27° 54′ N., long. 68° 33′ 15″ E. Pop. 4808—Muhammadans, 1814, chiefly Patháns; Hindus, 2994, principally Banias. Municipal revenue (1873-74), £620; disbursements, £543; incidence of local taxation, 2s. 7d. per head. Considerable trade in oil. Travellers' bungalow; post office.

Garhmukhtesar.—Ancient town in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 47′ 10″ N., long. 78° 8′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 7962, being 5401 Hindus and 2561 Muhammadans. Stands on the high cliffs of the right bank of the Ganges, 4 miles below its junction with the Búrh Ganga; distant from Meerut 26 miles south-east. Originally a ward (*mahalla*) in the mythical city of Hastinapur, celebrated in the *Bhágavat Purána* and in the *Mahábhárata*. Ancient fort, afterwards occupied by a Marhattá leader. Derives its name from the great temple of Mukhteswara Mahádeo, dedicated to the goddess Gangá, consisting of four separate shrines, two on the cliff and two below it. Close by stand 80 *sati* pillars. A great fair at the full moon of Kártik attracts 200,000 pilgrims from all parts of the country. Inhabitants chiefly Bráhmans. Little trade except in timber and bamboos, rafted down the Ganges from the Dún and Garhwál. Police station, four *saráis*, staging bungalow, charitable dispensary. Ferry in the rains, and bridge of boats during the remainder of the year.

Garhshankar.—Southern *tahsíl* of Hoshiárpur District, Punjab; situated between 30° 58′ and 31′ 25′ 30″ N. lat., and between 76° 1′ and 76° 33′ 45″ E. long. Area, 502 square miles; pop. (1868), 223,031; persons per square mile, 444; number of townships, 497.

Garhshankar.—Town in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab, and head-

quarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 31° 12′ 58″ N., long. 76° 11′ 2″ E.; pop. (1868), 5739, being 1627 Hindus, 3506 Muhammadans, 109 Síkhs, and 497 'others.' Situated on the road from Hoshiárpur to Rúpar. Considerable trade in sugar and tobacco. *Tahsíli*, police station, post office. Police force of 16 men.

Gárhvi.—River of the Central Provinces; rising near Chichgarh, in Bhandára District, in lat. 20° 52′ N., long. 80° 34′ E., and flowing southwards for 150 miles, falls into the Waingangá below Seoni, in Chánda District, lat. 20° 26′ N., long. 80° E. According to a local legend, the stream issued from the earth at the prayer of a holy man named Gárga Rishi.

Garhwál.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 26′ and 31° 5′ N. lat., and between 78° 17′ 15″ and 80° 8′ E. long.; with an estimated area of 5500 square miles, and a population (1872) of 310,288 persons. Garhwál forms the north-western District of the Kumáun Division. It is bounded on the north by Chinese Thibet, on the east by Kumáun District, on the south by Bijnaur, and on the west by Independent Garhwál or Tehri, and Dehra Dún District. The administrative headquarters are at PAURI, but SRINAGAR is the chief town of the District.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Garhwál consists for the most part of rugged mountain ranges, the central peaks or outliers of the main Himálayan chain, tossed wildly about in the most intricate confusion, and severed by narrow valleys, which may rather be described as gorges or ravines. The broadest among them, that of Srínagar, measures barely half a mile in width, and has an elevation of 1820 feet above sea level. A narrow strip of *bhábar*, or waterless forest, some 2 or 3 miles in breadth, intervening between the southern bases of the hills and the alluvial lowlands of Rohilkhand, forms the only level portion of the District. To the north, the mountains belong to the central upheaval line of the Himálayas, the principal peaks within the boundaries of Garhwál being—Trisúl, 23,382 feet; Nandá Deví, 25,661 feet; Dúnagiri, 23,181 feet; Kamet, 25,413 feet; Badrináth, 22,901 feet; and Kedárnath, 22,853 feet. North-westward from this massive chain, the mountains fall away to the elevated plateau of Thibet, scored by the valleys of the Saraswatí and the Dhauli, through which the MANA and NITI PASSES respectively lead across the frontier into Chinese territory. Southward from the main range again, parallel spurs run towards the plain in a direction from north-east to south-west, while cross systems of irregular hills connect their lines from time to time, interspersed with occasional ridges of greater elevation, which reach a height of from 10,000 to 12,000 feet. South of the river Nyár, however, the ranges assume a direction more parallel to the plains, and nowhere exceed an elevation of 7500 feet. Along

the larger rivers, the hills present a gradual slope at their bases, and end in a succession of dry terraces, which are generally cultivated by artificial irrigation. Above, a belt of forest clothes their flanks; while the actual summits rise high into the region of perpetual snow. The ALAKNANDA RIVER, one of the main sources of the Ganges, marks the central line of greatest depression, and with its affluents receives the whole drainage of the District. The Alaknanda forms one of the holiest amongst Indian objects of reverence, and each of the points where it meets a considerable confluent is regarded as a sacred station in the pilgrimage which devout Hindus perform to Himáchal. At Deoprayág, a place of special sanctity, it joins the BHAGIRATHI, and the united streams thenceforward assume the name of GANGES. The only important river in Garhwál that does not fall into the Ganges within the borders of the District is the Rámganga, which rises near Lobha, and, flowing through Kumáun and the plains of Rohilkhand, finally debouches into the great stream in Farrukhábád District. Navigation is impracticable on all the rivers, owing to their great velocity, and the existence of shoals or rapids; but several among them afford a water-way for rafting timber. Wherever cultivable land occurs along their banks, they are employed for purposes of irrigation; while two small canals supply water to an insignificant area in the *bhábar*. The southern portion of the District is still covered with primeval forest, and tiger-haunted jungles abound in the central tract; but cultivation encroaches year by year on the wild lands, and the people are encouraged to settle and reclaim the soil by grants at a nominal rent.

History.—In the almost total absence of written records, the annals of Garhwál have to be constructed partly from local tradition and partly from inference. Some five hundred years since, the valley of the Alaknanda was divided into 52 petty chieftainships, each chief having his own independent fortress (*garh*), from which the country is said to have derived its name. Between four and five centuries ago, Ajai Pál, ruler of Chándpur, reduced all these minor principalities under his own sway, and became the founder of the Garhwál kingdom. He placed his capital at Srínagar, where he built a palace, the ruins of which still remain in tolerable preservation. The Rájás of his line, known as the Chánd Dynasty, ruled over Garhwál and the adjacent Tehri State until their expulsion by the Gúrkhás in 1803. The succession appears to have been strictly hereditary. One of the line, Pritám Sáh, was chosen ruler of Kumáun; but on his father's death, he preferred the certain tenure of his ancestral dominions to the precarious throne of the neighbouring State, which lay at the mercy of the party from time to time in power at Almora. The Chánd Rájás seem generally to have ruled with justice and moderation, and their country attained a considerable degree of prosperity for a mountain principality.

Twice they successfully repelled an invasion of the Rohillás—on one occasion when the freebooters attacked them through Kumáun, and again when they attempted to enter the hill country through Dehra Dún. But a constant predatory warfare existed between Garhwál and the Kumáun people, each party making forays into the territory of their rivals whenever opportunity offered, and plundering all that came in their way. To the present day, a slumbering animosity between the inhabitants of the two Districts is only kept in check by the British authority. In 1803, the Gurkhás, then the dominant race in Nepál, made their way westward, conquering everything before them, and drove Pridhiman Sáh, the Chánd Rájá, into the plains. For twelve years the Gurkhás ruled with a rod of iron over the whole of Garhwál and Dehra Dún, and impoverished the country by their tyranny and fiscal exactions. They divided the District into a number of petty military fiefs, in which each commandant exacted as much as he was able in addition to the demand of the central power. The villages were left waste; the inhabitants fled into the densest and most impenetrable jungles; and to this day the name of Gurkhá forms a popular synonym for all that is cruel and tyrannical. Years of our rule have hardly sufficed to obliterate the effects of this terrible invasion, which threw back the progress of the country for at least a quarter of a century. The Gurkhás then commenced a series of petty encroachments on the British territories at the foot of the Himálayas, which were not resisted with any vigour until the attention of our Government was attracted in 1812 by their outrageous aggressions on the Gorakhpur and Tirhut frontier. After an unsuccessful attempt at conciliation, war broke out in November 1814. The events of the campaign, which resulted in our capture of Almora, and the reduction of the two Districts, belong rather to the history of KUMAUN. At the close of the war, the Tehri principality, known as INDEPENDENT GARHWAL, was restored to Pridhiman Sáh, whose grandson, Pratáp Sáh, still retains it; but the valley of the Alaknanda was erected into a British District, and organized on the usual model. Under our strong and peaceful administration, British Garhwál has risen from a state of desolation scarcely paralleled elsewhere in India, to a height of material prosperity which it never before enjoyed. Cultivation has rapidly increased, and the growth of tea culture has opened the District to British capital and enterprise, which are turning this once wretched tract into an important and wealthy region.

Population.—The Census of 1872 was taken over an area approximately estimated at 5500 square miles; and it disclosed a total population of 310,288 persons, distributed among 3944 villages or townships, and inhabiting 57,293 houses. Persons per square mile, 56; villages or townships per square mile, 0·7; houses per square mile, 10;

persons per village, 79; persons per house, 5·4. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 155,750; females, 154,538; proportion of males, 50·2 per cent. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Garhwál is almost exclusively a Hindu District, as many as 308,398 persons, or 99·3 per cent., being returned as adherents of the ancient creed; while the Muhammadans number only 1799, or 0·7 per cent. The Musalmáns live in such scattered localities that they possess little or no social influence. There is a Christian mission at Chapra, near Pauri, and 85 persons were returned in 1872 as belonging to that persuasion. The great Hindu temples of BADRINATH and KEDARNATH attract large numbers of pilgrims, and have produced a deep influence on the history and manners of the people. They lie among the inmost recesses of the snowy range. The sanctity of these shrines has contributed to render the inhabitants superstitious and bigoted; but the yearly influx of pilgrims has added greatly to the wealth of the District. Three principal races inhabit the southern slopes of Garhwál. The Dhúms appear to be the descendants of the aboriginal tribes, and now form the menial class throughout the District. They differ totally in features, habits, and religion from the other castes by whom they have been brought into subjection. The Khasiyás evidently came from the plains of Hindustán, but they preserve no memories of their immigration. They comprise many castes of Bráhmans, Rájputs, etc., all of which, however, are regarded by the orthodox Hindus as Súdras. They reside principally in the central and northern *parganás*, and resemble the Gurkhás in appearance, from which fact it may perhaps be inferred that they are not free from a Nepálese admixture. The third class includes the true Bráhmans and Rájputs, most of whom arrived in the country after the establishment of a settled Government. Some of the Bráhmans trace back their immigration to the times of Ajai Pál. A totally distinct race inhabits the region lying within the snowy range. These are the Bhutiás, a tribe of Indo-Chinese origin, much intermixed with Hindu elements. They talk the Húnia or Thibetan language, as well as the Hindí, and they have also a patois of their own. They number in all only 3030 souls; but they control the whole carrying trade with Thibet. Both men and women are powerfully built, dirty in their habits, and greatly addicted to drink. Among the social customs of Garhwál generally, must be noticed the universal prevalence of polygamy. Wives are looked upon in the light of beasts of burden, so that every man obtains as many as his means will afford. Desertion and suicide are common, in spite of all the efforts of the British officials in ameliorating the condition of women. The District contained no place in 1872 with a population exceeding 5000 persons. PAURI, the headquarters station, can hardly claim to any higher rank than that of a hill village; and

SRINAGAR, in the valley at its foot, is the only place which reaches the dignity of a town.

Agriculture.—Out of an estimated area of 5500 square miles in 1872, only 209 were returned as under cultivation. Nevertheless, this amount is nearly treble of the tilled land in 1815. Agriculture is carried on with considerable skill and great industry. Taking into account the steep nature of the country, it must be allowed that the people deserve great credit for the manner in which they have divided it into terraces, some of the fields having a breadth of only 3 yards. Wheat, rice, and *manduá* form the staple crops; and the quantities grown not only suffice for local wants, but leave a surplus for exportation to Thibet. The chief food of the lower classes is *manduá*, which yields a larger return than any other crop. Cotton is little cultivated, as it can be purchased elsewhere at a cheaper rate than that for which it could be produced in the District. The people have grown richer of late years, and are enabled to keep more cattle than formerly, and consequently to employ more manure for their fields. Abundant pasture lands stretch along the upper slopes of the snowy range, affording excellent grazing for large herds of goats and sheep during the rains. Unlimited pasturage also exists in the valleys and in the *bhábar* at the foot of the hills, but this has been preserved by the Forest Department, which levies dues on all animals permitted to enter its boundaries. Cattle in numbers come for grazing from the western *parganás* of Kumáun, where no pasturage is found. The cultivators chiefly consist of petty proprietors, and the peasantry as a whole are well-to-do and free from debt. Rents are generally paid in cash, except by tenants-at-will, who settle in kind at the rate of from one-fourth to one-third of the crop. Irrigation is practised wherever water can be obtained; and two small canals in the *bhábar* supply an area of 1300 acres. The regular rotation of crops consists of rice, followed by wheat, and again by *manduá;* after which the land lies fallow till the next rice season. Tea-planting is carried on under European supervision to a considerable extent. The planters give occupation to about 400 permanent and 600 short-service labourers, the latter being employed during the tea-picking season. Wages have more than doubled during the last thirty years. In 1850, ordinary coolies obtained $\frac{3}{4}$d. per diem; they now receive 3d. per diem. Smiths, braziers, and carpenters used to get from 3d. to $4\frac{1}{2}$d.; they are now paid from $4\frac{1}{2}$d. to 9d. Agricultural day-labourers are unknown in Garhwál. The ordinary price of *manduá* varies from 30 to 40 *sers* per rupee, or from 3s. 9d. to 2s. 10d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Floods occasionally occur on the Alaknanda, one of which, before the Gurkhá conquest, swept away half the town of Srínagar. In 1868, again, an inundation of the same river inflicted con-

siderable damage. Droughts also affect the District from time to time, but owing to the high ranges of hills on every side, they are never general, though they may extend over so wide a tract as to make their effects felt throughout the whole country. The last great scarcity from this cause took place in 1867, when the *rabí* crops in all the lower and more fertile portion of Garhwál almost entirely failed. Government made an advance of £1000, and grain purchased in the *bhábar* was carried up by the people themselves for sale at certain established centres. Money was plentiful in the District at the time, so that most purchasers paid in cash, only a few giving labour in exchange for food. The *kharíf* crops of the same year proved excellent in their yield, and entirely relieved the temporary distress. Garhwál suffered but little from the terrible famine of 1868-70, and probably gained in the end, as measures were taken to prevent the export of grain or the ingress of pilgrims; and the crop of 1869 turning out a good one, the people sold large quantities of food-stuffs, after the removal of the embargo, at very high rates, to the inhabitants of Bijnaur. This famine also acted as an incentive to increased cultivation. Want of carriage forms the great difficulty in relieving distress among the Garhwál Hills, since supplies can only be drawn from the *bhábar*, or the adjacent plain Districts; and to reach these places a very malarious jungle must be traversed. Sir H. Ramsay has done much to avert the recurrence of dearth by his settlements in the *bhábar* of Kumáun, but the similar tract in Garhwál does not possess like capacities for cultivation. Famine rates are reached when wheat sells at 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt., and *manduá* at 10 *sers* per rupee, or 11s. 2d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The Bhutiás carry on a considerable traffic with Thibet, to which country they export grain, sugar, cloth, and tobacco; while salt, borax, wool, gold, and precious stones form the chief staples of the return trade. Sheep and goats imported from Chamba are employed as beasts of burden on these routes, which lie over the lofty crests of the Mána and Níti Passes. Bird-skins and the pods of musk-deer formerly ranked as main items in the exports southward; but owing to the reckless way in which the animals were destroyed, measures have been taken to preserve them, which cause a temporary interference with the trade. Several valuable minerals are found in Garhwál, including copper, iron, lead, silver, and gold; none, however, occur in paying quantities or positions. Coin accumulates from year to year, mainly through the influx of pilgrims to the great temples. Tea-planting has not hitherto proved remunerative, but its financial prospects are improving, as the planters gradually learn to economize labour and to reduce expenditure. No railway station exists nearer than Sahâranpur, distant from Pauri about 100 miles. Good hill roads, from 10 to 12 feet in width, intersect the District in every direction.

Most of them are bridged throughout. The total length of roads amounts to about 1000 miles. The chief routes, in a commercial point of view, are those—(1) from Srínagar to Níti, 125 miles, which serves the Thibet trade; (2) from Srínagar to Kotdwára, 55 miles, which serves the traffic to the plains; (3) from Kainúr to the great trading mart at Rámnagar, which carries the hill produce; and (4) from Pauri to Almora, connecting the two headquarters stations.

Administration.—The District is administered by an Assistant Commissioner, who resides at Pauri, and possesses criminal and revenue jurisdiction. The office is now (1877) held by a military officer in civil employ, assisted by a *tahsíldár* who is stationed at Srínagar. The latter place is also the headquarters of the native civil judge. In 1822, the total land revenue amounted to £5851; by 1875, it had risen to £9555. There is no regular police except at headquarters, and little crime of any kind. Long-term prisoners are sent to the jail at Almora, and the only place of confinement in Garhwál is a lock-up at Pauri. Education has made much greater progress among these mountain valleys than in the plain country at their feet. The total number of schools in the District in the year 1875-76 amounted to 73; and the total number of pupils on their rolls to 3609. These figures show an average of 1 school to every 75·34 square miles of area, and 11·6 scholars per thousand of the population. For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 11 *parganás* and 86 *pattis*. The number of registered proprietors at the last settlement amounted to 31,118. There are no municipalities in Garhwál.

Medical Aspects.—For six months in the year the climate of Garhwál is damp and rainy; but during the remaining half of each twelvemonth it is dry and bracing. The natural features of the country, however, introduce many minor modifications in various portions of the District. Towards the Níti and Mána Passes, in the Bhutiá country, periodical rains do not occur, and the climate is always cool. In the valleys, intense heat prevails during the summer months, while the nights and mornings in the cold season are bitterly cold. The average annual rainfall at Pauri is about 48·4 inches, and at Srínagar about 37·1 inches. Fevers and bowel complaints form the chief endemic diseases, but cholera prevails to a much greater extent than in the plains. The total number of deaths recorded in 1875 was 8750, or 20·21 per thousand. Small-pox formerly ravaged the District, but owing to the vaccination arrangements lately made, this annual plague has ceased to recur with its former regularity. There are 7 charitable dispensaries — at Pauri, Srínagar, Mahál Chaurí, Karnprayág, Ukhimath, Chimoli, and Joshimáth. During the year 1875-76, they gave relief to 7710 patients.

Garhwál (or *Tehrí*).—A Native State in political relationship with

the Government of the North-Western Provinces; lying between lat. 30° 2′ and 31° 20′ N., and between long. 77° 54′ and 79° 19′ E. It extends over the south-western declivity of the Himálayas, and consists throughout of a vast range of mountains of enormous height, intermingled with several valleys, the drainage of the whole ultimately finding its way to the Ganges. The chief town is Tehrí, by which appellation the State is sometimes mentioned. The Rájá of Garhwál, Pratáp Sáh, is a Kshattriya of the Solar race. The early history of the dynasty is very obscure; but it appears that they exercised authority over the whole of Garhwál for many generations, paying, however, a small tribute to the Emperor of Delhi. In 1804, the Gurkhás overran the country and expelled the Rájá, but he was replaced by the British after the Nepál war of 1815, and that portion of his hereditary possessions which lay to the west of the Alaknanda river was restored to its old Rájá; the lands to the east, the Dehra Dún and the District of Garhwál, being retained by the British Government. (*See* GARHWAL DISTRICT, *supra*.) During the Mutiny of 1857, the Rájá rendered valuable assistance to Government. He died in 1859 without legitimate issue, and, in accordance with the terms of the treaty, the State lapsed to Government; but, in consideration of the services of Sudar Shan Sáh, his eldest illegitimate son, Bhawání Sinh, was allowed to succeed. Bhawání Sinh subsequently received a *sanad* giving him the right of adoption. He was succeeded in 1871 by his eldest son, Pratáp Sáh, the present ruler, who was born about 1850. The Rájá pays no tribute. The area of Garhwál is about 4180 miles, the population in 1875 was estimated at 150,000, and the revenue at £8000. The hills are generally very steep, and a large portion of the territory is covered with forests, which include valuable *deodar* tracts. These were leased to the British Government in 1864.

Garnemetta (*Gurnimetta*).—Town in Cuddapah District, Madras. Lat. 13° 48′ N., long. 78° 56′ E.; pop. (1871), 5938; houses, 1179.

Gáro Hills.—The District of the Gáro Hills forms the south-western corner of the Province of Assam. It lies between 25° 9′ and 26° 1′ N. lat., and between 89° 52′ and 91° 3′ E. long., forming a mountainous projection between Goálpára and the Bengal District of Maimansinh. According to the recent revenue survey, which closed operations in 1875, it contains an area of 3180 square miles, with an estimated population of from 80,000 to 100,000 persons. The administrative headquarters are at the station of TURA, on the mountain range of the same name.

Physical Aspects.—The entire District, as implied by its name, is broken by hills. On the north, near the Brahmaputra river, the hills are low, and covered only with grass or scrub jungle; but they gradually increase in height towards the interior of the District. The two

principal ranges are known as the Turá and Arbelá Hills, which run parallel to another east and west. Their greatest height is about 4500 feet, which is attained by two peaks in the Turá range. As is the case with all the mountains on the north-east frontier of India, these ranges take the form of a series of long even ridges, with deep valleys between, occasionally diversified by peaks or towering masses of rock. Except on the rare spots where *júm* cultivation has been introduced, they are clothed with dense forest, containing timber-trees of majestic dimensions. From the summit of Turá Hill a magnificent view can be obtained over the flat Districts of Goálpára, Rangpur, and Maimansinh, and the sweeping course of the Brahmaputra can be traced for a distance of upwards of 100 miles. On a clear day in the months of October and November, the eye can discern the snowy peaks of the Himálayas, far beyond the distant station of Dárjíling. In the valleys, also, the scenery is of a very picturesque character. The hill streams break through rocky gorges, which are overgrown to the water's edge with forest trees, creepers of many varieties, and gigantic ferns.

The BRAHMAPUTRA, called the Amáwári by the Gáros, nowhere touches the boundary of the District; but several tributaries of that river take their rise among the hills, and find their way out into the Districts of Goálpára and Maimansinh. Of these, the five most important are the KRISHNAI, KALU, BHOGAI, NETAI, and SOMESWARI, all of which are used for floating down timber rafts, and can be navigated by canoes during the cold season. The Turá range constitutes the water-shed of the District, all the streams north of that line draining into Goálpára, while those to the south flow into Maimansinh. The streams abound in fish, which the Gáros are expert in catching by several ingenious devices.

The extensive forests of the District are too remote from means of communication to yield much profit. The valuable *sál* tree is very abundant, and the *tún*, *kurái*, and *ajár* are also felled for timber. In recent years, the British authorities have adopted the policy of taking into their own hands the entire management of the forests, after compensating the *zamíndárs* and the hillmen for the rights which they formerly enjoyed. It is proposed to plant nurseries of *sál* in spots convenient for water carriage, and carefully reserve them from the fires of *júm* cultivation. At present the woodcutters take out licences to fell timber within certain limits. In the year 1874-75, the revenue derived from this source amounted to £2005, but the collections are very fluctuating. The jungle products are — lac, bees-wax, various fibres used for making string and cloth, and a few dyes. Wild animals and large game abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, wild dogs, buffaloes, *mithún* or wild cows, and many kinds of deer. Government has recently asserted its prerogative to the sole right of capturing wild

elephants. It has been estimated that the District can annually supply nearly 200 of these valuable animals for several years to come, which alone would more than repay all the local expenses of administration. The mineral products known to exist are—coal of fair quality and under a large area, building stone, and lime. No metals have hitherto been discovered.

History.—The Gáro Hills were first constituted a separate administration in the year 1866. Previous to that date the independence of the tribes living in the remote hills had been tacitly recognised. From the time when the British obtained possession of the *díwání* of Bengal in the last century, numerous Gáro villages along the foot of the hills were included within the Districts of Goálpára and Maimansinh. The frontier, however, was always very ill-defined, being fixed neither by geographical nor ethnical principles. The boundaries were finally settled by the survey executed between 1870 and 1875. Towards the east a line has been drawn along rivers and other natural boundaries, to demarcate the Gáro from the Khási Hills. On the north and west, some tracts previously included within Goálpára District have been definitely attached to the Gáro Hills; and the dues and cesses formerly levied by the lowland *zamíndárs* are now collected on their account by the direct agency of Government. On the south side, towards Maimansinh, a similar principle has been adopted; and a long-standing dispute has been terminated, which dated back to the Permanent Settlement. The Rájá of Susang and other Maimansinh *zamíndárs* had persistently asserted their claim to a large portion of the hills, as having been originally included within their permanently settled estates; and they urged, accordingly, that such portion of the hills lay within the jurisdiction of the Collector of Maimansinh. These claims, however, were never admitted by the Government. In 1866, the boundary was roughly drawn at its present line, and the Maimansinh landholders were left to prosecute in the courts of law any claims which they might possess.

But though a British officer was appointed to the Gáro Hills in 1866, the mountainous interior still remained a *terra incognita*, and its inhabitants continued to be known as the Independent Gáros. In December 1867 the Deputy Commissioner took up his quarters at Turá, and by the end of 1871 nearly 100 villages had tendered their submission. In that year, however, there occurred the unfortunate incident which led to the armed expedition of 1872-73. After the conclusion of the survey of the adjoining Khási Hills, the survey party was deputed to explore the country of the Independent Gáros. At first, no active opposition was encountered, though it was found that the hillmen gradually ceased to offer ready assistance. Their suspicions evidently were aroused. In March 1871, two Bengali coolies of the survey party, who had been detached to procure labour from the secluded villages of

Rangmágiri and Pharámgiri, were treacherously attacked, and one of them was murdered. This outrage was followed by several raids on the part of the Independent Gáros against their countrymen who lived under British protection. The Deputy Commissioner immediately occupied the rebellious villages with bodies of police, but he was not strong enough to pursue the inhabitants into their retreat amid the forests. Accordingly it was determined to take advantage of the cold season of 1872-73, in order to enforce the authority of the British Government throughout the whole country, and to receive the submission of about 60 villages that still held out. The expedition consisted of three strong detachments of police, operating from separate points, and three companies of the 43d Assam Light Infantry. The military, however, were never required to advance farther than the frontier of the Khási Hills. After one engagement, in which the Gáros suffered some loss, the three police parties effected their junction, having marched through the country in all directions. Every one of the independent villages now came in to tender their submission. They surrendered the heads of the persons killed by them in their several raids, and paid the fine that was inflicted on them. At the same time, permanent measures were adopted for maintaining order in the future. Every part of the lately independent country was thoroughly examined, the number and size of the villages noted, and arrangements made for the appointment of *lashkárs* or heads of circles. Every village was compelled to contribute to the revenue, according to an assessment levied on each house. By the end of May 1873, a map of the entire Gáro Hills District had been prepared, on the scale of four miles to the inch; and the wild interior was thus robbed of its chief protection, which our ignorance had conferred upon it. The results of this expedition have been most beneficial, and the civil administration has since been conducted with little or no trouble.

People.—No attempt at a regular enumeration of the inhabitants has ever been attempted in the Gáro Hills. The Deputy Commissioner estimates the population at from 80,000 to 100,000. The former estimate is adopted in the Census Report of 1872. In the hills proper, the only race to be found is the Gáro itself, with the exception of one small isolated village called Thápá, which is inhabited by Rábhás. But several villages on the plains, which have recently been included within the boundaries of the District, are peopled by Rábhás, Kochs, Rájbansís, Dálus, Mechs, and a few Musalmáns. All these tribes possess ethnical affinities in common with the Gáros, but the latter retain sufficient national characteristics to be classed as a people by themselves. They are thought to represent the primitive stock, of which the Rábhá, Mech, Káchárí, and Koch represent offshoots, that have been modified by life on the plains and contact with Hinduism. According

to local tradition, the Gáro Hills were once occupied by Kochs, who were gradually driven northward by an invasion of Gáros; and it is a fact that the Kochs at the present day claim land in the hills.

The Gáros proper are a robust and active race, capable of enduring a great amount of exertion. They are of about the middle height, and of a dark-brown swarthy colour. Neither the men nor women have any pretensions to good looks. Their cheekbones are prominent, noses broad, lips thick, ears large, and eyes of a hazel colour. The men are remarkable for deficiency of beard, whatever hair grows on the face being carefully plucked out. The hair of the head with both sexes is never cut, but either tied up in a knot or kept off the face by means of a piece of cloth. The dress of the men consists merely of a strip of home-spun cotton cloth, about a yard and a half in length, which is passed round the waist and between the legs, and then tied at the back. The dress of the women only differs in being slightly more extensive. In addition, both sexes carry a small blanket, usually made from the bark of a tree. This is manufactured by steeping the bark in water, beating it out, and afterwards drying it well in the sun. In the eastern hills, the Gáros have adopted the short fringed jacket, which is characteristic of the Khásiás. Both men and women are inordinately fond of personal ornaments. The males wear three or four brass ear-rings, and as many bead necklaces as they can afford. Men of hereditary rank wear an iron or brass armlet above the elbow, and a peculiar ornament round the head, which consists of brass plates connected by a string. It is said that this last may only be assumed by one who has slain an enemy in battle. The women wear, besides necklaces of glass and bell-metal beads, ear-rings of enormous size and weight. It is a coveted mark of distinction to have the lobe of the ear altogether torn away by the strain thus caused, in which case the ear-rings are suspended from a string passed over the top of the head. The weapons of the Gáros consist of spear, sword, and shield. The sword which is peculiar to these hills is a two-edged instrument with an abrupt point, the blade and handle forming one piece. Besides being a weapon, it is used for every variety of domestic and agricultural purpose. The shield is composed of thin strips of bamboo ingeniously worked together, so as to be almost proof against a spear-thrust. In the back of the shield is a receptacle for bamboo spikes, which form an essential item in the equipment of a Gáro warrior. These spikes are intended to be planted in the ground, so as to block the way against a shoeless enemy; and they have been found to answer their purpose very effectually. In food, the Gáros may be styled omnivorous; they eat not only beef and pork, but also tigers, dogs, snakes, and frogs. Their staple diet is rice, and their drink rice beer. Milk they altogether eschew, like many of the hill tribes of India. They are great smokers of tobacco,

but touch no intoxicating drug. Their villages are usually placed on the side of a hill, some distance from the crest, and within easy reach of water. The houses, as is generally the case among the tribes of the north-east frontier, are built on piles, and are frequently of considerable size. The materials are bamboo and thatch. The structure is usually divided into the following compartments:—A large room where the family live, an apartment for the women, a place where the cattle are kept, and verandahs in front and behind. A rude fireplace, consisting merely of smoothed clay, occupies the middle of the house; and the smoke is left to escape as best it can. During the agricultural season, the entire body of villagers occupy temporary huts in the immediate neighbourhood of the common cultivation. The most remarkable custom of the Gáros is one which they share with the Khásias. The wife is regarded as the head of the family, and through her the descent of property is traced. The man who marries the favourite daughter of the house is required to marry his own mother-in-law, on the death of his father-in-law; and in this manner he succeeds to the family property. This custom is apparently a survival of the system of polyandry. That system still exists intact among Himálayan tribes; for example, among the tribes between Simla and Thibet. It is also practised among the Nairs and the aboriginal Todas of Southern India. According to this system when in full force, a woman is the lawful wife of a family of brethren, and a man's property descends, not to his own, but to his sister's children. Among tribes who have advanced so far as to give up the practice of polyandry, but who still preserve its traditions, it leaves behind curious customs of inheritance, such as that just described among the Khásias. Property still descends through the females, and the sons receive nothing, but have to look to the family into which they marry for their advancement in life. As among the Khásias, in all domestic matters, the women enjoy a position of the highest consideration, and it is said that their voice has great weight also in public councils. Marriages are arranged by the parents, and concluded when the parties are of fit age. No dower is demanded on either side. The husband immediately migrates to the house of his wife's family, and becomes one of her clan. Intermarriages between members of the same clan are not permitted, but otherwise no regard is paid to the ties of consanguinity. A second wife cannot be taken without the consent of the first. Adultery is punished by a fine. The funeral ceremonies imply the belief in a future state of existence. The body is burned, and the ashes finally buried near the hut-door. At the time of cremation, dogs are sacrificed, in order that they may direct the spirit on his way. Up to a very recent period, human victims were offered on the occasion of the death of a chief. If no slaves were available, a foray was made into the plains to

bring back heads. The Gáros believe in a supreme being called Saljang, who is impersonated in the sun. But the real objects of their religion are numerous malignant demons, to whom is attributed every physical and moral evil, and whose wrath requires to be appeased by bloody sacrifices. It is the duty of the priest or *kamál* to determine by certain omens which particular evil spirit is at work, to arrange the ceremonies, and repeat the necessary incantations. Like the aborigines of Central India, the Gáros are excessively superstitious, and believe in the existence of witches and imps of all kinds. They have a curious idea that certain persons are capable of leaving their human frames, and taking up their abode in the body of a tiger or other animal.

The Gáro villages vary greatly in size. Some may have as many as 2000, others have no more than 30 inhabitants. TURA STATION, with only about 300 inhabitants, is the only place possessing any special characteristics. It is situated on a spur of the Turá range, about 2000 feet above sea level, and the same distance from the summit. It contains a large bungalow for the Deputy Commissioner, barracks and huts for 150 constables, and the school-house of the American Mission. The stockade by which it was originally protected, and a small outpost station, have now been suffered to fall into decay. Water is plentiful in the immediate neighbourhood, and an aqueduct has recently been cut, running right through the station.

Agriculture, etc. — The Gáros cultivate their land on the system known as *júm*. A spot of land is selected on the hillside, and the jungle cut down during the cold season. Towards the end of March, the trees and brushwood are burned as they lie; and the rice crop is planted in April, at the commencement of the rains. Shortly afterwards, the crops of vegetables, cotton, pepper, and pulses are sown in the same field; and each crop is reaped in order, as it comes to maturity. In the second year, rice only is grown; and after two years' cultivation, the clearing is abandoned and suffered to lie fallow for about ten years. The sole implement of agriculture is the large knife or sword, called *áte* by the Gáros. Neither plough nor spade is used, except in the few Hinduized villages bordering on the plains. The rice crop generally raised corresponds to the *áus* of Bengal; the outturn is estimated at about $4\frac{1}{2}$ cwts. per acre, valued at 15s. The cotton is short in staple and poor in quality. Several experiments have been made with seed from Hinganghát, but hitherto without any success. The attempted introduction of the Khásia potato has also resulted in failure. Among miscellaneous crops may be mentioned — pulses (reared as food for the lac insect), indigo, ginger, turmeric, and *pán* or betel-leaf. Domestic animals are not used for purposes of agriculture. Cattle are purchased from the plains for sacrifice; pigs, goats, and fowl are reared for food. Every village contains several watch-dogs,

and numbers of dogs are imported from the plains to be used for food.

There are no regular day-labourers in the District. A fair remuneration for a Gáro casually engaged to carry baggage, would be from 4d. to 6d. a day. The work at the station is mainly carried on by coolies imported from the plains. The Gáros have no weights nor measures of quantity, but they are extremely acute in guessing the amount of the commodities they barter with Bengali traders. In 1871, the price of the best cleaned rice at Turá was 13s. 8d. per cwt.; of common rice, 6s. 10d. per cwt.

No such calamity as blight, flood, or drought has been known to occur in the Gáro Hills. The country is well watered both by streams and rainfall, but the average harvest of rice is barely sufficient for the local consumption. In the improbable contingency of distress from a failure of the *áus* crop, the inhabitants could be best relieved by the establishment of food depôts at the hill passes, which would prevent a turbulent population from crowding into the plains. The deficient rainfall of 1873 did not seriously affect the rice harvest.

Manufactures, etc.—There are no special local manufactures in the hills. The Gáro women weave a coarse cotton cloth for the scanty garments of themselves and the men, using a loom which has evidently been borrowed from Bengal. The cloth is dyed blue with indigo, and generally ornamented with red stripes. A rude pottery is made in certain villages, but all metal utensils are imported. The District trade is entirely conducted at the small markets situated at the passes leading into the plains. The principal articles of export are—cotton, timber, boats, bamboos, firewood, rubber, and lac; the imports received in exchange consist of—rice, dried fish, cattle, goats, fowls, pigs, cloth, and ornaments. The raw cotton grown on the *júms* is bought up by Márwárí merchants, to be shipped to Sirájganj. In 1874-75, about 25,000 cwts. of cotton were exported, valued at 11s. per cwt. In the same year, the exports of lac were estimated at about 1600 cwts., worth about £3 per cwt.

Administration.—In the year 1869-70, the total revenue derived from the Gáro Hills was £798, while the expenditure on administration amounted to £6476. By 1874-75, the revenue had risen to £3745, of which £610 was collected on account of certain *zamíndárs* in Goálpára District.

Medical Aspect.—The rainy season generally lasts from about the middle of June to the end of October, but occasional showers set in as early as May. The cold weather lasts from November to February; and the months of March and April are usually dry and warm. During the two years 1874 and 1875, the average annual rainfall registered at Turá station was 126·97 inches. The chief diseases affecting strangers

to the hills are fevers of a malarious type, sometimes complicated with enlargement of the spleen or liver, diarrhœa, dysentery, rheumatism, chest affections, and ulcers. The Gáros, in addition, suffer from bronchocele and elephantiasis. In 1871, a severe epidemic of cholera broke out at the station of Turá. Out of 80 persons attacked, as many as 32 died.

Garol.—Petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. It has been lately transferred to the Pánch Maháls District; but the tribute of £3 is still paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda through the Rewá Kánta Agency.

Garolá. — Rent-free estate in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; consisting of one village, with an area of 5479 acres, and yielding a yearly revenue of £88. Pop. (1870), 1043. The village became the headquarters of a tract bestowed by the Emperor of Delhi on Ráo Kám Chandra; the greater part of which was resumed by the Peshwá in 1746. Garolá contains a small fort, and is surrounded by a stone wall. To the east is a fine lake, covering 76 acres; the soil around is fertile. Government school for boys.

Garotha.—The north-eastern *tahsíl* of Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a hilly country, gradually sloping down to the plains along the Betwa and the Dhasán rivers, and much intersected by native territory. Area, 501 square miles, of which 232 are cultivated; population (1872), 85,202; land revenue, £14,061; total Government revenue, £15,350; rental paid by cultivators, £36,659; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 10½d.

Garrauli.—One of the petty States of Bundelkhand in the Central India Agency, under the Government of India. It is divided into eight tracts. Gopál Sinh, the first *jágírdár*, and the father of the present chief, was one of the most active and daring of the military adventurers who opposed the occupation of Bundelkhand by the British Government in 1803. He had been in the service of Darjan Sinh and Hari Sinh, the grandsons of Chhatarsál Sinh, in Jáso; and on the invasion of Alí Bahádur, he seized the *parganá* of Kotrá for himself. For years he resisted all efforts of persuasion or force to reduce him to submission; but being at last convinced of the hopelessness of the unequal contest, he submitted on condition of receiving a full pardon and a provision in land. Accordingly, in 1812, he received a *sanad* and the grant of the Garrauli *jágír*. He was succeeded by his son, Diwán Bahádur Parichit, a Hindu of the Bundela caste, who is the present chief or *jágírdár*. The chief has received a *sanad* of adoption. The area of the State is estimated at 25 square miles; the population (1875) at about 5000; the revenue at £1500. The military force consists of 75 men.

Garuda-giri (or *Gardan-giri*).—Hill peak in Kádúr District, Mysore; 4680 feet above sea level. Lat. 13° 29′ N., long. 76° 17′ E.

Garudanadi (or *Gaddilam*).—River in South Arcot District, Madras.

It rises in the Yegal Tank, in Kallakurchi, and is fed by the Mallatár. After a course of 59 miles between Fort St. David and Cuddalore, it falls into the Bay of Bengal.

Garumári.—Forest reserve in Darrang District, Assam; containing valuable *sál* timber (Shorea robusta). Area, 205·18 acres.

Garvi.—Petty Bhíl (Bheel) State in Khandesh, Bombay Presidency. —*See* DANG STATES.

Garwá.—Municipal village on the North Koel river, Lohárdagá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 9′ 45″ N., long. 83° 51′ 10″ E. The chief distributing centre for the surplus produce of Palámau Subdivision, and of a great part of Sargujá and the tributary States of Chutiá Nágpur. The Garwá market is held in the dry season, on the sands of a river; and here stick-lac, resin, catechu, cocoons of *tasar* silk, hides, oil-seeds, *ghí*, cotton, and iron are collected for exportation; the imports are food grains, brass vessels, piece-goods, blankets, silk, salt, tobacco, spices, drugs, etc. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £204, or 10d. per head of population.

Gathar.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 2531—Muhammadans, 1174; Hindus, 1357.

Gatka.—One of the petty States of Hallár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 5 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £1000; of which tribute of £64 is payable to the British Government, and £20 to Junágarh.

Gauháti (*Gowhatty*).—Chief town of Kámrúp District, and the largest in Assam; situated on the left or south bank of the Brahmaputra, in lat. 26° 11′ N., and long. 91° 48′ E. Pop. (1872), 11,492; municipal revenue (1875-76), £2727; rate of taxation, 4s. 9d. per head. Gauháti was the ancient capital of the Hindu kingdom of Assam, and the seat of the British administration until the formation of the Province in 1874, when the residence of the Chief Commissioner was fixed at Shillong in the Khási Hills. It is still the most populous town in the Brahmaputra valley, and spreads over an area of 2 square miles. According to local tradition, it is identified with the city of Prágjotishpur, the capital of Narak and his son Bhagadáttá, monarchs mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*. In historical times, it was the capital of the Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp, which extended over great part of Northern Bengal; and subsequently it was the residence of the Bar Phukán, or viceroy of the Aham dynasty. Its former glories only exist in the ruins which lie scattered on both banks of the Brahmaputra. The remains of extensive fortifications can still be traced, though the gateways existing at the beginning of the present century have now entirely disappeared. A large proportion of the soil in the cultivated fields in the neighbourhood is composed of brick, mortar, and pottery; and carved stones and beautifully finished slabs, the remains of once noble temples, are fre-

quently found beneath the surface. The numerous tanks, that attest the command of naked labour possessed by its former rulers, are now choked up with weeds and jungle, or are entirely effaced by a false though luxuriant soil that floats on the stagnant waters concealed beneath. The site of the town is regarded as very unhealthy. The houses are situated along the southern bank of the Brahmaputra, on comparatively high ground; but behind there stretches a malarious swamp or *bíl*, several square miles in area. In recent years, some improvement has been effected, by enforcing sanitary rules within the limits of the municipality. In 1875, the military cantonments were occupied by the 42d Assam Light Infantry, with a total strength of 500 men. Gauháti is an important centre of river trade, being one of the largest seats of commerce in Assam. In 1876-77, European piece-goods were imported to the value of £16,000, and cotton twist to the value of £10,500. An excellent cart road leads south to Shillong, a distance of 67 miles. The High School at Gauháti is the only one in the Province with a College Department, teaching up to the university standard. There is also a flourishing Persian school. In the immediate neighbourhood are two frequented places of Hindu pilgrimage—the temple of Kámákhyá, on a hill two miles west of the town; and the rocky island of Umánánda, in the mid-channel of the Brahmaputra.

Gauli (or *Mewásí*).—One of the Mowár States in Khandesh, Bombay. Area unknown; estimated pop. (1875-76), 500; supposed gross revenue, £1500. The country is extremely mountainous, and covered with dense forests. Principal produce, timber. Climate exceedingly unhealthy. The chief is named Khatia Walad Nana Wálvi, a Bhíl Hindu of the Giras family. He resides at Raisínhpur. He is one of the superior chiefs of Khandesh, and can read and write Marathí and Gujarathí.

Gaur (or *Lakhnauti*).—Ruined city and ancient capital of Bengal, Maldah District; situated on a deserted channel of the Ganges, in lat. 24° 52′ N., long. 88° 10′ E. The time of the foundation of the city is involved in utter obscurity, and the whole course of its history, down to the day when it was finally deserted, is only to be vaguely conjectured. With regard to its origin, it is known that it was the metropolis of Bengal under its Hindu kings. Local traditions connect some of its ruins with the oft-recurring names of Adisúr, Ballál Sen, and Lakshman. The most ancient name for the city itself seems to have been Lakshmanáwatí, corrupted into Lakhnauti. The name Gaur is also of great antiquity, but it is probable that this name was more strictly applicable to the kingdom than to the city. The ascertained history of Gaur begins with its conquest in 1204 A.D. by the Muhammadans, who retained it as the chief seat of their power in Bengal for more than three centuries. This was the period during which were erected the numerous mosques and other Muhammadan buildings, which yet remain in a

tolerable state of preservation. When the Afghán kings of Bengal established their independence, they transferred the seat of government to PANDUAH, also in Maldah District; and to build the public structures of their new capital, plundered Gaur of every monument that could be removed. Hence it is, that while the ruins of Panduah are covered with stones bearing Hindu sculptures, scarcely a single relic has been found on the site of Gaur that could be definitely referred to a Hindu building. Panduah was soon afterwards deserted, and the royal residence retransferred to Gaur, which continued, under the name of Janatábád, to be the capital of Bengal so long as its Muhammadan kings retained their independence. During the latter years of the Afghán dynasty, the seat of government was removed to TANDAN or Tangra, in the same District; but Gaur preserved the wealth and populousness of a great metropolis until it finally disappeared from history at the time when Akbar's generals reconquered Bengal. During these last years of its greatness, it suffered many vicissitudes. It was plundered by its own kings, repeatedly besieged, and more than once taken by storm. Dáúd Khán was the last of the Afghán dynasty. His refusal to pay homage to the Mughal Emperor at Delhi, led to the final subjugation of Bengal. A large army under Mana'im Khán finally defeated Dáúd in 1575, and occupied during the rainy season the already decaying city of Gaur. A pestilence, however, broke out, by which thousands of the troops and inhabitants are reported to have died daily. This completed the desolation of the city. The imperial general, who had resolved to maintain Gaur as the seat of government, and to restore its former magnificence, fell a victim to the general contagion. From henceforth the name of Gaur is scarcely to be found in Muhammadan annals, and it is supposed that the city was never reoccupied after this depopulation. Such is the generally received account of the desertion of Gaur; but Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton discredits the story of the pestilence, and states that the Mughal viceroys of Bengal used occasionally to reside at Gaur, and that as late as 1639 Sháh Shujá, the brother of Aurangzeb, added buildings to the city. This prince made Rájmahál the capital of Bengal; and from that time, according to Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, dates the desolation of Gaur. He thinks that 'the city then went to instant ruin, not from any great or uncommon calamity, but merely from the removal of the seat of government.' The ruins have been a quarry, not only for the brick houses of the neighbouring towns and villages, but also for the mosques, palaces, and public monuments of Murshidábád. It is said that the Commercial Residency at ENGLISH BAZAR was constructed with bricks from Gaur. Dense jungle now reigns supreme over the half-obliterated ruins of walls, forts, and palaces; and tigers, rock pythons, and pelicans are the chief inhabitants of Gaur.

The ruins were first explored by Mr. H. Creighton in 1801, and afterwards by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton in 1810. This latter gentleman has left an elaborate description of the ruins as they then appeared, from which the following account is mainly condensed. It must be remembered, however, that their dilapidation, partly from natural causes, but chiefly by the hand of man, has rapidly advanced since that time.

The city, with its suburbs, covered an area variously estimated at from 20 to 30 square miles. The situation is somewhat elevated, and the soil is clay, well suited to preserve the houses from inundations. The dimensions of the city proper, *i.e.* the part within the great continuous embankment, were about 7½ miles in length from north to south, and from 1 to 2 miles in breadth, giving a total area of about 13 square miles. The west side of the city was throughout washed by the main stream of the Ganges, the eastern side being protected partly by the Mahánanda and partly by a line of perennial swamps. To the south but little protection was needed, for the junction a little lower down of the Mahánanda and the Ganges would have prevented an invader from choosing such a circumscribed base of operations. To the north, which was the most accessible quarter, an artificial bulwark was required. A line of fortifications, about 6 miles in length, extends in an irregular curve from the old channel of the Bhágirathi at Sonatálá to near the Mahánanda at Bholahát. This rampart, mainly composed of brick, is about 100 feet wide at its base. At each end, where it touches on the rivers, it is cut off by a ditch 120 feet wide. At the north-east part of this curve is a gate, protected by a strong projecting outwork in the form of a quadrant, through which a high embanked road passes north and south. This outwork contains many tanks, and the monument of a Muhammadan saint. It seems to have been the station of the police officer who had charge of this part of the city. Near the north-east corner of the outwork, at the confluence of the Kálindrí with the Mahánanda, stands a *minár* or tower, which, although now fallen to ruin, still presents a striking object as viewed from the ferry at Minásarái. North of the rampart, and entirely apart from the city, are two isolated ruins, connected with the names of Adisúr and Ballál Sen, early Hindu kings of Bengal. Close by are the ruins of the palace where Ballál Sen is said to have resided, consisting, like the palace at Dacca, of a square of about 400 yards, surrounded by a ditch. Behind the rampart is the northern suburb of the city. It is of vast extent, in the shape of a quadrant of a circle, with an area of about 6000 yards. It does not appear to have been at any time thickly inhabited. The eastern portion is now occupied with marshes; but the western portion, near the Bhágirathi, is enclosed by earthworks, and contains many public buildings. Here is situated the Large Ságar Díghí, the most celebrated artificial piece of water in Bengal. Its dimensions are almost 1600

yards from north to south, and more than 800 from east to west. The banks are built of brick, and the water remains pure and sweet to the present day. This was, no doubt, a Hindu structure; and in the neighbourhood are the two most frequented places of Hindu devotion in the District. The banks, however, are now occupied with Muhammadan buildings, of which the most conspicuous is the tomb of Mukhdam Sháh Jalál, a saint who is stated to have exercised great influence in the time of the early Musalmán kings of Bengal. Near this tomb is a small mosque. Both these buildings are supported by an endowment, and tolerably well cared for. Opposite this suburb, at a market-place now called Sádullápur, is the chief descent (*ghát*) to the old bed of the holy stream. To this spot dead bodies of Hindus are still brought from great distances to be buried.

Immediately to the south lies the city itself, which, towards each suburb and along the Ganges, has been defended by a strong rampart and ditch. On the side facing the Mahánanda the rampart has been double, and in most parts there have been two immense ditches, and in some parts three. No doubt these works were designed as much for embankments and drains as for fortifications. The base of the outer embankment was in one place measured by Mr. Creighton, and found to be 150 feet thick. By far the greater portion of the 13 square miles thus enclosed appears to have been thickly inhabited. Small tanks are everywhere to be seen, as well as many foundations of houses and the remains of small places of worship. In the southern part, there have been numerous roads, raised very high, and so wide, that in many places, small buildings of brick were erected on their sides. These were probably chapels, or other places of public resort; while the dwelling-houses were huddled together along the sides of the tanks. Somewhat to the south, on the banks of the Bhágirathi, was the citadel or *kilá*, a work evidently of the Muhammadan period. It extends about a mile in length from north to south, by about from 600 to 800 yards broad. The rampart which encircles this area has been very strongly built of brick, with many flanking angles and round bastions at the corners. The palace, at the south-east corner of the citadel, was surrounded by a wall of brick about 40 feet high and 8 feet thick. In the interior, the remains of several cross-walls are visible, but the arrangement of the apartments cannot be ascertained. Indeed, almost the whole site is now under cultivation. A little north of the palace are the royal tombs, where Husáin Sháh and other independent kings of Bengal lie buried. This building has been almost entirely destroyed but it had evidently considerable pretensions to elegance. The floor was paved with stone, and the graves were covered with slabs of polished hornblende. Not one of these stones, however, now remains. Within the citadel, also, are two mosques, the larger of which has fallen

into ruins. The smaller, built by Husáin Sháh, or by his successor, Nazrat Sháh, known as the Kadam Rásúl Mosque, is in good preservation, being supported by an adequate endowment. Just outside the east wall of the citadel stands a lofty tower of brick, up the centre of which runs a winding stair leading to a chamber at the summit. It is known as the Pír Asá Manára, but no object is assigned for its erection by the natives. Mr. Fergusson, however, in his *History of Eastern Architecture*, states that it is evidently a pillar of victory, a Jayá Stambhá, such as the Kutab Minár at Delhi. About a mile and half north of the citadel is a place of 600 sq. yards, surrounded by a rampart and ditch, known as the Flower-Garden. South-east of this is the Pijáswárí or 'Abode of Thirst,' a tank of considerable dimensions, but containing bad brackish water. A tradition states that condemned criminals were allowed to drink nothing but water from this tank, and thus perished of thirst. There are many other large tanks within the city walls, some containing tame crocodiles, which are fed by the resident *fákírs*. Of these, the finest is the Small Ságar Díghí, which only in size is inferior to the tank of the same name in the north suburb. Between the Píjáswárí and the citadel is the Great Golden Mosque, reckoned the grandest building in Gaur. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton thought its proportions mean. It is 180 feet from north to south, 60 feet from east to west, and 20 feet high to the top of the cornice. It is a perfect parallelopiped without projection or recess, except that it was formerly covered with 33 domes. The only other structure of interest is the fine central gate in the south wall of the city. It is called the Kotwálí Darwázá, presumably from the circumstance that the superintendent of police was stationed here. The gate is described as being still in good preservation.

Southwards from this gate stretches an immense suburb as far as Pukhariyá, a distance of about 7 miles. Its width is comparatively small, but it bears abundant traces of having been at one time densely populated. It was called Firozípur, from Firoz Sháh, the second of the two kings of Bengal of that name. Towards the east and south lay an embankment and ditch, probably designed to ward off the floods, which have now created large marshes in that direction. This southern suburb contains a good number of public buildings. The most prominent among these are the Lesser Golden Mosque, which Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton describes as 'one of the neatest pieces of architecture in the whole place;' and the tomb of Niámat-ullá-Wáli. This person was the spiritual guide of Sháh Shujá, and his monument, which is small and clumsy, is to this day carefully tended by his descendants.

Such are the ruins of Gaur. No doubt, many of the accounts of its vast population are oriental exaggerations. But, even according to Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, who places the inhabited area at 20 square miles,

it would have contained over 600,000 or 700,000 souls. It is now entirely deserted, and overgrown with dense jungle, except where cultivation is again gradually spreading.

Gaura Jamún.—*Parganá* in Musafirkhána *tahsíl*, Sultánpur District, Oudh. Area, 93 square miles, of which 49 are under cultivation. Pop. (1869), 50,016, or 538 per square mile; 91 villages.

Gaurangdihi.—Hills in Bánkurá District, Bengal. Three conical hills at a village of the same name, 24 miles from Bánkurá, on the road to Raghunáthpur; about 300 feet above the level of the surrounding country, covered with tree jungle, and so steep as to be only accessible to men. Lat. 23° 26′ N., long. 86° 48′ 45″ E.

Gauridár.—Petty State in Hallár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 6 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue (1876), £1300; tribute of £101 payable to the British Government, and £61 to Junágarh.

Gaurihár.—One of the petty States in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency; situated between 25° 14′ and 25° 26′ N. lat., and between 80° 12′ and 80° 21′ E. long. It is bounded on the east by Bánda District and part of Hamírpur, on the north and west by Bánda, and on the south by the Chhatarpur State. Area, 72 square miles; estimated pop. 12,000; revenue, £5000. The predecessor of the present ruler was a guerilla leader of importance during the period of anarchy in Bundelkhand which prevailed at the close of the last century. He received a grant of the Gaurihár *jágír* in 1807. The present chief, Ráo Bahádur Rudra Sinh, did good service, at great personal loss, during the Mutiny of 1857; for which he received the title of Ráo Bahádur, a dress of honour worth Rs. 10,000, and the privilege of adoption, which was subsequently confirmed by *sanad*. The chief has a military force of 3 guns, 35 cavalry, and 240 foot soldiers. Gaurihár town is situated in lat. 25° 16′ N., and long. 80° 14′ E.

Gauripur.—Village in Goálpára District, Assam, on the right or north bank of the Brahmaputra. Lat. 26° 11′ N., long. 90° 7′ E.; pop. (1872), 1805. It is the residence of the wealthiest landowner in the District, and a busy centre of river traffic. A large trading fair is held here during the *Durgá-Pujá* festival in October or November. In 1876-77, Gauripur exported to Sirájganj, in Pábná District, 28,900 *maunds* of jute.

Gavipur.—Village in Bangalore District, Mysore; 1 mile south-west of the fort of Bangalore. Lat. 12° 56′ N., long. 77° 36′ E.; pop. (1871), 548. Celebrated for the cave temple of Gavi Gangádharesvara, constructed in the time of Kempe Gauda (1537). The emblems of Siva—the trident, the umbrella, and the double drum—are carved out of the solid rock on a colossal scale, each being 15 feet high.

Gaw.—Revenue circle in Tha-htún Subdivision, Amherst District,

Tenasserim, British Burma. It lies partly in the valley formed by the Martaban Hills on the east, and the Debharien Spur on the west, and partly in the plain country between the hills and the sea-coast. In 1876, the population was 4688, chiefly Toung-thús; the capitation tax yielded £432, and the land revenue, £1216. It formerly extended eastward as far as the Bhenglaing, but was reduced to its present limits a few years ago.

Gawilgarh.—Hill range, a branch of the Sátpura Mountains, in Berar; situated between 21° 10′ and 21° 46′ 30″ N. lat., and between 76° 40′ and 77° 53′ E. long. Immediately east of Betúl District they divide into two distinct ranges of hills—the one running on to the west coast between, and nearly parallel to, the Tápti and Narbadá (Nerbudda) rivers; whilst the other, passing in a south-westerly direction through Betúl, the Melghát or upland country of Ellichpur, and the southern portion of Nimár, terminates at the junction of the Tápti with its principal tributary, the Púrna. In Melghát, the crest of the range attains an average elevation of 3400 feet above sea level, the highest point, Bairát, being 3987 feet. The main height of the lower hills, bordering upon the Tápti, is about 1650 feet. The chief passes are—Mallára on the east, Dulghát on the west, and Bingára on the extreme west. There are several smaller intermediate tracks, used almost solely by Gonds in bringing their wood and forest produce for sale in the markets at the foot of the hills. None of the passes are practicable for wheeled vehicles.

Gawilgarh.—Hill fortress in the above range, in the Melghát Subdivision of Ellichpur District, Berar; situated on the watershed between the Púrna and Tápti rivers. Lat. 21° 21′ 30″ N., long. 77° 24′ 30″ E.; elevation, 3595 feet above sea level. The hill was first fortified by the Gaulis, a tribe from whom it takes its name, and who are still numerous here. The fortress, however, dates from 1420, its construction being assigned to Ahmad Sháh of the Báhmani dynasty. It was held at different times by the Nizám and the Marhattás, being captured from the latter by the British in December 1803. At that time it consisted of one complete inner fort facing the steepest part of the mountain, covered by an outer fort, defending its approaches to the north and north-west. The walls were strongly built, and fortified by towers and ramparts. The march of General Stevenson up the hills through the Dámangáon Pass eastward of Gawilgarh, and round to Labáda on the northern side of the fort, is described by Sir Arthur Wellesley as one of the most difficult, as well as successful, operations he had witnessed. The fort was breached by batteries from Labáda, and gallantly carried by storm on the 15th December 1803. The fort was dismantled in 1853, and the only buildings now standing are two mosques, the powder factory, and Shora-khána.

Gawtamaw.—A small revenue circle in Martaban township, Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The greater portion is under rice cultivation. In 1876-77, the population was 355; the gross revenue, £89.

Gayá.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 24° 17′ and 25° 19′ N. lat., and between 84° 4′ and 86° 5′ E. long. Area, 4716 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,949,750. It is bounded on the north by Patná District, on the east by Monghyr, on the south and south-east by Lohárdagá and Hazáribágh, and on the west by Sháhábád, the boundary line being formed by the river Són.

Physical Aspects.—The southern boundary of Gayá is formed by an irregular ridge of hills of no great height, but prettily wooded, and full of game. These hills may be regarded as part of the Vindhyan system by which the great Gangetic plain is bounded on the south; from them the District slopes gently northward towards the Ganges. The country is generally flat, but here and there hills are found, either isolated or in groups, the higher ones covered with jungle and coarse grass, the others rocky and bare. The loftiest of these peaks is Máher Hill, about 12 miles south-east of Gayá town, which rises to a height of 1620 feet above the sea. The only other remarkable clusters of hills in the District, besides the southern range already referred to, are the Barábár, or, as they are called in old maps, Currumshaw Hills; and a range which forms portion of the boundary between Gayá and Patná, and contains (on the Patná side) Rájgriha, the famous sacred mount, a place of great antiquarian interest. The eastern part of Gayá is highly cultivated; the portions to the north and west are less fertile, and the remainder of the District consists of hills and jungles, which are full of wild animals, and in which, too, the hunters collect *tasar* silk, bees-wax, resin, gums of all kinds, and the valuable fruit of the *mahuá* tree. This part of the country was formerly thinly peopled and little cultivated, but of late years much of the jungle has been cleared away, and the cultivated area is rapidly increasing; the soil generally is alluvial. Most of the rivers of the District take their rise in the southern mountains, and flow from south to north; the principal of them, however, the Són, which forms the boundary between Gayá and Sháhábád Districts, rises in the Central Provinces. Next in importance is the Púnpún, which follows a north-easterly course more or less parallel to that of the Són. Both of these rivers retain some water throughout the hot season; the stream of the Púnpún is extensively used for irrigating purposes. The Són derives its name from the golden colour of its sand, with which are intermixed a variety of small pebbles, some of them prettily coloured, and susceptible of polish. The Phálgú, formed by the junction of two hill torrents, flows through the District,

and is chiefly noteworthy for the reverence in which it is held by the pilgrims who flock in large numbers to Gayá; during the hot weather the stream dries up. The other rivers of the District worthy of notice are the Dhárhár, the Dongá, the Tiliyá, the Dhanarjí, the Shob, the Kúsí, and the Sakrí, all used for irrigation.

History.—Materials for the administrative history of Gayá are scanty, as the records were burnt during the Mutiny. After the acquisition of the Province of Behar by the English in 1765, the management was entrusted to a distinguished native, Shitáb Rái. Gayá, as at present constituted, then formed part of the District of Behar, and its history for the first fifty years of British rule does not admit of separation from the Province of the same name. In 1814, the south of the District was placed under the jurisdiction of a special Joint Magistrate, stationed at Sherghátí. In 1825, Gayá was constituted an independent Collectorate, with a jurisdiction including the present Subdivision of Behar. For revenue purposes, the Collector was under the jurisdiction of the Board of Commissioners at Patná and Benares, created in 1817. For judicial purposes, there were native *munsífs*, under a Judge-Magistrate; from whom, again, an appeal lay to the Provincial Civil Court at Patná. In 1829, this Court, and also the Board, were abolished, and their powers were vested in a Commissioner at Patná, acting under the orders of the Board in Calcutta. In 1831, increased powers were given to the Judge-Magistrate of Gayá as a Sessions Judge, and his magisterial powers were made over to the Collector. Thus the present unit of administration, the Magistrate-Collector, was created. In 1845, the offices of Magistrate and Collector were separated, to be reunited by order of the Secretary of State in 1859.

Though Gayá was not the scene of fighting during the Mutiny of 1857, yet an incident took place in the District worthy of record. The Sepoys in the neighbouring cantonments at Dinapur mutinied in July, and escaped into Sháhábád. After the first attack upon them by a British force had resulted in disaster, orders were issued by the Commissioner of Patná to all the civil officers within his jurisdiction to withdraw their establishments and retire on Dinapur. A small garrison of the 64th Regiment, together with a few Síkhs, were then stationed at Gayá town. In obedience to the written orders of the Commissioner, the handful of soldiers and civilians at Gayá started on the road to Patná, leaving behind about 7 *lákhs* of rupees (£70,000) in the treasury. But on the way bolder counsels prevailed. Mr. Money, the Magistrate of the District, and Mr. Hollings, an uncovenanted official in the opium agency, determined to return to Gayá and save what they could from the general pillage that would inevitably follow upon the abandonment of the town. The detachment of the 64th was also sent back. The town was found still at peace. A few days were spent in

providing carriage for the treasure. But the Patná road had become unsafe, and the only means of retreat now open was by the Grand Trunk Road to Calcutta. As soon as the little party had started a second time, they were attacked by a mixed rabble of released prisoners and the former jail-guards. After repulsing the attack, Mr. Money conveyed his treasure safely to Calcutta, where his arrival was welcomed with enthusiasm.

Population.—The population of the District, according to the Census of 1872, is 1,949,750 persons, dwelling in 6530 villages or townships, and 327,845 houses, the average pressure of the population on the soil being 413 to the square mile. The great majority of the people—88·7 per cent.—are Hindus; the proportion of Muhammadans is 11·3 per cent.; the Christians number 203, of whom 82 are native converts. The aboriginal tribes and semi-Hinduized aborigines number altogether 409,125, the most numerous of the semi-Hinduized tribes being the Dosádhs, of whom there are 92,929; and the Bhuniyas, who number 90,666. The aborigines live chiefly in the south of the District, and support themselves on the produce of the jungles, or by thieving, cattle-lifting, and hunting. Of high-caste Hindus in Gayá, there are 171,273, the Bráhmans numbering 65,301, and the Rájputs 102,918; of agricultural, pastoral, and labouring castes, there are 358,947 (of whom 278,665 are Goálás, the most numerous caste in the District); of trading and artisan castes, 207,031. Among the 65,301 Bráhmans of Gayá are included a number of persons who, though not regular or orthodox Bráhmans, are allowed a kind of brevet rank as such. Of these the most remarkable are the Gayáwáls, of whom there are about 300 families in the District. Although they are held in great esteem at the places of pilgrimage in Gayá town, respectable Bráhmans look down upon them; they live an idle, self-indulgent life, but are very wealthy, extorting large sums out of the numerous pilgrims. A detailed account of the origin and customs of this curious class of men is to be found in vol. xii. of the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (pp. 35, 49, 77). Seven towns in Gayá contain more than 5000 inhabitants—namely, GAYA (including Sáhibganj), with a population (1872) of 66,843; JAHANABAD, pop. 21,022; DAUDNAGAR, pop. 10,058; TIKARI, pop. 8178; SHERGHATI, pop. 7033; HASUA, pop. 6119; RAJAULI, pop. 5012.

The District of Gayá is full of places of the greatest sanctity. The rocky hills, which here run out far into the plain of the Ganges valley, teem with associations of the prehistoric religion of Buddhism, many of which have been diverted to new objects by modern superstition. The Bráhmans stamped out the Buddhist faith, but they have utilized its local traditions to their own profit. At the present day, the chief pilgrims to the sacred tree at Bodh Gayá are devout Marhattás, who

come to pray for the souls of their ancestors in purgatory. As a place of Hindu pilgrimage, the town of Gayá is of comparatively modern interest. The name is derived from that of a pagan monster, whose fate is recorded in the *Váyu Purána*. His only crime was his desire to save sinners from perdition. Accordingly, Brahma himself undertook the task of putting a stop to his career. This he effected by treacherously persuading him to lie down, and then placing a heavy stone upon his body. When the monster struggled to get free, the gods prevailed upon him to keep quiet, by the promise that they would come and take up their abode on the spot, and that all pilgrims who worshipped there should be delivered from the pains of hell. The profitable lesson of this legend has been turned to good account by the Gayáwáls, or Bráhman priests, who possess the monopoly of pointing out the sacred spots, and reciting the appropriate prayers. The pilgrim who would effectually secure admission for his ancestors into heaven, must scrupulously perform the whole routine of duties, each one of which involves presents to the priest. Before leaving his home, he must first walk five times round his native village, calling upon the souls of his ancestors to accompany him on his journey. Arrived at Gayá, he is forthwith placed in charge of a special Bráhman guide. There are 45 sacred localities, which he should visit in proper order and on particular days. The full round occupies 13 days; but for those who have not sufficient devotion, or sufficient wealth, 38 shrines, two, or even only one, will serve the desired purpose. Each of these sacred places, *bedí*, *tírat*, or *tirtha*, is supposed to represent the footprint of some deity. At each, a *pindá* or ball of rice and water has to be deposited by the pilgrim, while a hymn is chanted by the attendant Bráhman. Some of the spots lie a considerable distance beyond the city walls, on the summit of steep hills, the ascent of which demands not a little enthusiasm on the part of the devotees. Others are crowded together within the walls of old narrow temples. The popularity of Gayá appears to have increased with the growth of the Marhattá power. The records frequently allude to the arrival of Marhattá princes, as matters of political importance during the early years of British rule. Towards the end of last century, a Peshwá is said to have expended £10,000 upon a pilgrimage to Gayá. The average number of pilgrims in the year is now estimated at 100,000; and it has been calculated that a poor man might accomplish the full round at a cost of £2. The pilgrim tax, varying from about 4s. to 28s. per head, levied under the native government, was abolished during the early years of British rule.

TIKARI, on the Murhar river, contains the fort of the Rájás of Tikárí; JAHANABAD and DAUDNAGAR are chiefly interesting as having formerly contained flourishing cloth factories established by the East India

Company. Among the other noteworthy villages in the District are ARWAL on the Són, once famous for its paper and sugar manufactories, and now the centre of the only indigo concern in Gayá; Deo, the seat of the Rájás of that name, one of the most ancient families in the District; Nawádá, Wazírganj, Bela, Hasúá, and Wárisalíganj, considerable trading places. At BUDDH (or BODH) GAYA, about 6 miles south of Gayá, and a few hundred yards west of the Phálgú or Nilájan river, there are ruins of great sanctity. Here dwelt Sakya Sinha, the founder of the Buddhist religion, and here is the *pípal* tree under which he sat in mental abstraction for five years. Here, too, are extensive remains of temples and monuments, and of the Rajásthán or palace, said to be the residence of Dharma Asoka, and some of his successors on the throne of Magadha. Close at hand is a convent, the *mahant* or abbot of which shows the place to visitors. Another place of interest in the District is a temple of great antiquity, which crowns the highest peak of the Barábár Hills. This temple is sacred to Sidheswára, and contains a *lingá* said to have been placed there by Bárá Rájá, the Asar King of Dinájpur. In September, a large fair, attended only by men, is held here. The pilgrims, who number between 10,000 and 20,000, spend a night on the mountain. Near the foot of the hill are some caves cut in the rock about 200 years B.C., and in the immediate neighbourhood are a sacred spring and tank, and several sculptures of great interest to the antiquary.

Agriculture.—The most important crop of the District is rice, which is sown in June or early in July. The *bhadái* crop is reaped in August or September; the *kharíf* crop is transplanted in July or August, and cut in December or January. Wheat is sown broadcast in September and October, and reaped in March. Among the other cereals grown in Gayá are barley, Indian corn, *marúá*, and *kodo*. The chief leguminous crops of the District are *khesárí*, gram, peas, and beans. The other crops include yams and potatoes, hemp and flax, cotton, oil-seeds, opium, indigo, sugar-cane, and *pán*. Rotation of crops is common in the District, and irrigation is much practised, the means used being natural and artificial water-courses, reservoirs, and wells. Manure is always used for cotton and opium. The area cultivated with rice is about 900,000 acres, producing over 400,000 tons, of which a fourth part is exported to other Districts; the average wheat-growing area has been estimated at nearly 170,000 acres, producing about 60,000 tons, of which about a half is exported; and the area devoted to oil-seeds is about 35,000 acres. The area under opium cultivation in Gayá cannot be given exactly, as the boundaries of the opium Subdivisions are not conterminous with those of the District; but the two Subdivisions of Tehtá and Gayá are almost co-extensive with Gayá District, and the sum of their areas is but little in excess of the opium area. In

1872-73, the area under cultivation in these two opium Subdivisions was 67,858 acres, the amount of crude opium produced being 668 tons, and the average produce per acre about 22 lbs. There is only 1 indigo factory under European management in the District, and for some unexplained reason the dye here cannot be brought to such a state of perfection as it attains north of the Ganges. The area under sugar-cane has been estimated at 13,000 acres. Speaking roughly, a fifth of the total area of the District still lies uncultivated. A fair out-turn of paddy or unhusked rice from an acre of good land would be 30 cwts., value £2, 14s.; from inferior lands, 18 cwts., value £1, 12s. 5d. The out-turn of wheat or barley, and their value, is much the same as in the case of paddy; but the cultivation of these crops is less expensive, and the net profit to the cultivator is consequently higher. Wages for labour are generally paid in kind. There seems to have been little or no variation in money wages during the last quarter of a century, but at an earlier period they were 25 per cent. less than at present. The money wage of a bricklayer or day-labourer is now 3d., that of a smith or carpenter, 4½d. per diem. Prices seem to have fallen of late years. In 1859, 1860, and 1870, the prices of the best cleaned rice were respectively 6s. 0½d., 7s. 6d., and 4s. 5d. per cwt.; in the same years the prices of common rice were 5s. 4d., 6s. 10d., and 3s. 9d. per cwt. respectively.

Natural Calamities.—Gayá does not suffer from blights or floods to any great extent, but droughts are very common, and seriously affect the prospects of the District. The Són Canals, recently completed, will no doubt prevent much of the loss arising from dry seasons. The District suffered considerably from the famine of 1866, and the mortality was increased by an outbreak of cholera which took place in the middle of July in the town of Gayá, and spread through the greater part of the District. The number of recipients of gratuitous relief never exceeded a daily average of 1200, and the average daily number of persons employed on relief works was about 350. The maximum price of common rice was 18s. 6d., and of paddy, 9s. 3d. per cwt.; but prices in Gayá are not by any means a trustworthy index to the pressure from scarcity. The famine of 1873-74 did not affect the District seriously; the food-supply was augmented by private trade, and the Government had only to supplement this supply by a small amount of grain.

Commerce and Trade.—No important manufactures are carried on in Gayá. Common brass utensils for home use, black stone ornaments, pottery, *tasar* silk cloth, and rope made of a grass called *sabíh*, are manufactured. Cloth and paper were formerly the principal manufactures of the District, but these industries have now almost entirely died out. Soda effloresces in parts of the District, and a considerable quantity of saltpetre is manufactured and despatched

to Calcutta. The principal exports are—food grains of all kinds (especially rice), oil-seeds, indigo, crude opium (sent to Patná for manufacture), saltpetre, sugar, blankets, brass utensils, etc. Among the imports are—salt, piece-goods, cloth, cotton, timber, bamboos, tobacco, lac, iron, spices, and fruits. The principal trade with other Districts is by the Patná branch road, along which it has been proposed to lay a tramway or a light railroad.

Administration.—Owing to the loss of all office records at the time of the Mutiny, it is impossible to give the revenue and expenditure of Gayá District before 1858-59. In that year the net revenue was £213,125, and the net expenditure £164,748; in 1870-71, the net revenue was £192,870, and the net expenditure £224,176. The land revenue constitutes in Gayá, as elsewhere in Bengal, the most important item of the revenue; in 1870-71, it amounted to £138,032. Sub-division of estates has progressed very rapidly in Gayá; the number of estates in 1871 was 4411, and the number of registered proprietors, 20,453. The average payment, therefore, from each estate was £31, 5s. 10d., or from each individual proprietor, £6, 14s. 11d. Comparing these figures with the corresponding ones for 1789, found in an old register in the Patná office, it appears that in eighty years each estate had on an average split up into six, and where there had in 1789 been one proprietor there were in 1871 eighteen. The land revenue in the former year was £104,170; the subsequent increase has not been great, as remissions have been granted to the Deo Rájás and others for military services. The machinery for the protection of person and property in the District has been steadily increasing in strength. There are now 7 magisterial and 12 civil courts. For police purposes, Gayá is divided into 13 *thánás*, with 24 outposts. The regular police consisted at the end of 1872 of 2 superior and 104 subordinate officers, and 509 constables; the municipal police at the same time consisted of 303 officers and men, the village watch numbered 6926; and in addition to all these, there was a body of 122 *digwárs* or road policemen, maintained by the landholders at a total annual cost of £786, 12s., or £6, 9s. for each *digwár*. These *digwárs* are peculiar to Gayá, and appear to have been first appointed early in the present century, in consequence of frequent accidents to travellers on roads and hill passes. Highway robbery, once very prevalent in the District, is said to have almost entirely ceased since the introduction of the *digwárí* system. The entire police forces of the District consisted in 1872 of 7966 officers and men, or 1 man to every 0·6 square mile. The total cost of maintaining this police in 1872 was £26,182, equal to a charge of $3\frac{1}{8}$d. per head of the population. In the same year, the number of persons tried for 'cognizable' and 'non-cognizable' offences was 2499, of whom 1457, or 58·3 per cent., were convicted. Burglary and

dakáití are very common in this District; the criminal classes are principally recruited from the Bábhans, Goálás, Dosádhs, and Doms. There were 5 jails in the District in 1870—the District jail at Gayá, and Subdivisional lock-ups at Jahánábád, Aurangábád, Nawádá, and Sherghátí. In that year the daily average number of prisoners in the Gayá jail was 445, and the average cost of maintenance per prisoner was £3, 7s. 9d., excluding cost of police guard. Education (specially primary) has made rapid progress of late years. The number of pupils subject to the Education Department increased from 574 in 1856-57 to 8139 in 1873-74; the total number of schools in the latter year was 446, or 1 school to every 10·5 square miles. For administrative purposes, the District is parcelled out into 4 Subdivisions—the *sadr* or headquarters Subdivision, occupying an area of 1853 square miles; Nawádá, 1020 square miles; Aurangábád, 1246 square miles; and Jahánábád Subdivision, 599 square miles.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Gayá is dry, and the District is regarded as very healthy. The average temperature is about 79·98°, and the annual rainfall at the town of Gayá, 35·59 inches. The wettest month is July, and in that month the average rainfall is 12·49 inches. Among the endemic diseases of the District are cholera, leprosy, small-pox, neuralgia, headache, and the 'Gayá sore.' Cholera breaks out every now and then in some part of the District, and also occurs occasionally in an epidemic form. There was an outbreak of cholera in 1866, which caused from 1200 to 1400 deaths. Small-pox is endemic, owing to the strong objection of the people to vaccination. Neuralgic headache occurs in a very intense form; it often returns periodically, and in some cases defies all treatment. Its prevalence is attributed to the dryness and heat of the atmosphere. The 'Gayá sore' commences as a cluster of small vesicles, which coalesce and form a large one; this ruptures and leaves an ulcerated surface, irritable and tiresome to heal.

Gayá.—Principal Subdivision of the District of the same name, lying between 24° 17′ and 25° 6′ 30″ N. lat., and between 84° 20′ 30″ and 85° 26′ 45″ E. long. Area, 1853 square miles, with 2667 villages or townships, and 134,504 houses; pop. (1872), 759,270, viz. 371,414 males and 387,856 females. Classified according to religion, there are 663,481 Hindus, 95,579 Muhammadans, 146 Christians, and 64 'others.' Average density of population, 409·75 per square mile; villages, 1·44 per square mile; houses, 72·5 per square mile; average persons per village, 284; per house, 5·64. The Subdivision comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Gayá municipality, Gayá, Atrí, Tikárí, Sherghátí, and Bárácható. In 1869, it contained 12 magisterial and revenue courts, and a police force of 330 officers and men, besides 3104 village watchmen; total cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £9839.

Gayá.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of the District of the same name; situated on the right bank of the Phálgu river. Lat. 24° 48′ 44″ N., and 85° 3′ 16″ E. long. The town consists of two distinct portions adjoining each other—the old town or Gayá proper, which contains the residence of the priests; and Sáhibganj, the trading quarter, and also the seat of administration, where the civil offices and the dwelling-houses of the European residents are situated. The streets are wide, but the native houses are generally small and insignificant. Besides the ordinary official courts, Sáhibganj contains the jail, police lines, hospital, circuit bungalow, and church. There is also a public library, billiard-room, and racecourse. Gayá with Sáhibganj forms one municipality. The population of the united towns in 1872 amounted to 66,843, viz. 33,071 males and 33,772 females. Hindus numbered 52,265; Muhammadans, 14,444; and Christians, 134. Municipal income (1876-77), £2758; expenditure, £3303; average incidence of taxation, 8¼d. per head of population within municipal limits. The town police force consists of 20 officers and men. For the history and shrines of Gayá, see *ante*, GAYA DISTRICT.

Gazzalháthi ('*The Elephant Track*').—Pass in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 33′ N., long. 77° 3′ E. Formerly the principal pass from Coimbatore into Mysore, one track leading from Satyamangalam, and another from Coimbatore town *viâ* Denayakenkota to the foot of the *ghát*. An old-fashioned bridge at the foot still stands, but the road is no longer kept in order. Pack-bullocks and donkeys still cross it in considerable numbers. The head of the pass, 2800 feet above sea level, is 17 miles from the Mysore frontier.

Gedí.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £428, of which tribute of £120 is payable to the British Government and £13 to Junágarh.

Geonkhálí (*Cowcolly*).—Lighthouse, 13 miles east and 4 miles north of Contai, Midnapur District, Bengal. Lat. 21° 50′ 15″ N., long. 87° 59′ 15″ E. The cyclone of October 1864, with its accompanying storm-wave, visited this place and the surrounding country with terrific force. For a full and interesting account of it, given by the lighthouse superintendent, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 220-226.

Georgegarh.—Fort in Rohtak District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 38′ N., long. 76° 37′ E. Built by the adventurer George Thomas during his temporary dominion over this part of India. He was besieged here by the Marhattás in 1801, but succeeded at the head of a small body of cavalry in cutting his way through the investing lines to Hánsi, where he was finally overthrown.

Gewarda.—Chiefship in Chánda District, Central Provinces.—*See* GIWARDA.

Ghágar.—River rising in the Kotwálipára Marshes, Bákarganj District, Bengal; rising in lat. 23° 1′ 45″ N., long. 90° 8′ 45″ E. It flows south into the Madhumati (lat. 22° 48′ 30″ N., long. 89° 57′ 15″ E.), a distributary of the Ganges, and is called the Síldáha in the lower part of its course.

Ghaggar.—River in the Punjab and Rájputána. Once an important confluent of the Indus, but now a comparatively insignificant stream, which loses itself in the deserts of Bhatnair. The Ghaggar rises among the Himálayan slopes in the Native State of Náhan or Sirmúr (lat. 30° 41′ N., long. 77° 14′ E.), leaves the hills a few miles above the town of Mani Májra, and crosses Umballa (Ambála) District at its narrowest point; thence it traverses the Native State of Patiála, flowing close to the British frontier, and passing only 3 miles to the west of Umballa city, where it actually touches the borders of our territory; emerging into Hissár District near the town of Akalgarh, it divides into two channels, and formerly passed on to Sírsa with a very uncertain water supply, but the whole amount is now diverted in Hissár itself for purposes of irrigation. Another branch, however, reaches Sírsa from Patiála direct, and crosses the District into the Rájputána deserts. The water penetrates no farther than the fort of Bhatnair, just beyond the frontier, but the dry bed may be traced as far as Mírgarh in Baháwalpur State. In ancient times the lower portion of the river appears to have borne the name of its confluent the SARASWATI or Sarsuti, which joins the main stream in Patiála territory. It then possessed the dimensions of an important channel, receiving the whole drainage of the lower Himálayas between the Jumna (Jamna) and the Sutlej (Satlaj), and debouching into the Indus below the junction of the five great Punjab rivers. At present, however, every village through which the stream passes has diverted a portion of its waters for irrigation, no less than 10,000 acres being supplied from this source in Umballa District alone. The dams thus erected check the course of the stream, while the consequent deposit of silt, greatly facilitated by the dams, has permanently diminished the power of the water, both in the main stream and its tributaries, to force its way across the dead level of the Karnál and Patiála plains. In Sírsa District the river expands into three *jhíls* or swampy lakes, on which a few Persian wheels are worked for purposes of irrigation. The Ghaggar water, when employed for drinking, produces disastrous results upon the health of those who use it, causing fever, enlarged spleen, and goitre; families die out, according to report, in the fourth generation; and the villages along its banks are greatly under-populated. Only the prospect of obtaining immense out-turns for their labour can induce cultivators to settle in such an unhealthy region. During the lower portion of its course, in Sírsa District, the bed of the Ghaggar runs dry from November to

June, affording a cultivable surface for rich crops of rice and wheat. Even in the rains the water supply is very capricious, and from time to time it fails entirely, except in the immediate neighbourhood of the hills.

Ghagra.—River of Oudh.—*See* GOGRA.

Gháibi Dero (or *Dero Kot*).—*Jágír* town in Shikárpur District, Sind. Lat. 27° 36′ N., long. 67° 41′ E.; pop. (1872), 857—Muhammadans, 487 (mainly Chándias), and Hindus, 370. It is the principal town in the *jágír* of Gháibi Khán Chándia, the chief of the Gháibi Khán and Chándia tribes, long established in CHANDKO.

Ghan.—River of Berar, rising in the tableland north of the Pen-gangá valley, Buldána District, Berar, in lat. 20° 26′ 30″ N., long. 76° 23′ 30″ E. The stream, which dries up in the hot weather, flows in a northerly direction past Pimpalgáon and Nándwa, and joins the Púrna in lat. 20° 55′ N., and long. 76° 33′ E.

Ghansor.—Village in Seoni District, Central Provinces; 64 miles north-east of Seoni town. Lat. 22° 21′ N., long. 79° 50′ E. Remarkable for the remains of forty or fifty temples, very elaborately ornamented with sculptures carved in a beautiful sandstone. The Nágpur museum possesses specimens representing the incarnations of Vishnu. The village is also a police outpost station.

Ghará.—A name sometimes applied to the united stream of the Beas and the Sutlej, from their confluence at Endrísa to their junction with the Chenáb. Below the latter point the whole river bears the title of Panjnad. The length of the course between these points amounts to about 300 miles.

Ghárápuri ('*Hill of Purification*'?), sometimes also vulgarly called *Gáripuri*; the *Galipouri* of Du Perron and Niebuhr; spelt *Gárápuri*, and translated 'Town of Excavations' by Dr. Stevenson.—*See* ELEPHANTA.

Gháro.—Village in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Lat. 24° 44′ 30″ N., long. 67° 37′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 828, viz. 586 Hindus and 242 Muhammadans. Occupied chiefly in grain trade with Kurrachee, Tatta, and Mirpur Sakra. The Karáchi-Kotri Railway, which runs within 8 miles, has diverted much of the former trade from this place. A bridge of four arches spans the creek of Gháro.

Ghátál.—Municipal town in Midnapur District, Bengal; situated on the Silái river, near its junction with the Rúpnaráyan, and recently transferred to Midnapur from Húglí District. Lat. 22° 40′ 10″ N., long. 87° 45′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 15,492, of whom 15,130 are Hindus. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £419; expenditure, £669. Ghátál is an important commercial town, carrying on trade in rice, silk, sugar, cotton cloth, etc.

Ghátampur.—Southern *tahsíl* of Cawnpore District, North-Western

Provinces, lying along the banks of the Jumna, and traversed by a branch of the Lower Ganges Canal. Area, 335 square miles, of which 224 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 123,800; land revenue, £29,413; total Government revenue, £32,386; rental paid by cultivators, £46,026; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 8⅞d.

Ghátampur.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh. A small *parganá*, 8 miles long by 7 broad. Area, 26½ square miles, or 16,937 acres, of which 12 square miles are cultivated. Government land revenue, £2274, or an average of 2s. 8⅜d. per acre. Land is held under the following tenures:—*Zamíndárí*, 15,056 acres; *tálukdárí*, 267 acres; and *pattidárí*, 1414 acres. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 15,979; Muhammadans, 201; total, 16,180, viz. 7767 males and 8413 females. The Báis Kshattriyas form the most numerous caste. Number of villages, 92; average density of population, 622 per square mile.

Ghátampur Kalán.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 18 miles south-east of Unao town, and 12 south of Púrwa. Lat. 26° 22′ N., long. 80° 46′ E. Said to have been founded many centuries ago by an eponymous Tiwári Bráhman, whose heirs are still in possession. Noted for excellence in goldsmiths' and carpenters' work. Pop. (1869), 1750 Hindus and 59 Muhammadans; total, 1809, dwelling in 372 houses. Four Hindu temples; Government school.

Ghátkúl.—*Parganá* in Chánda District, Central Provinces; consisting of 81 villages, on an area of 368 square miles. Hilly and densely wooded, except in the east along the Wainganga river, where the black loam produces good crops of rice, sugar-cane, and wheat. Population chiefly Telíngás. At the beginning of this century, plunderers from the opposite side of the Wardha constantly overran the *parganá*, and many villages remain desolate to this day.

Gháts (meaning etymologically 'a pass through a mountain,' or 'landing stairs from a river;' in this case the 'passes' or 'landing stairs' from the coast to the inner plateau).—Two ranges of mountains, forming the eastern and the western walls which support the triangular tableland of Southern India. The Eastern and the Western Gháts pass through many Districts, and their sections are treated in detail in the articles on the Administrative Divisions in which they are situated. The present notice of them must therefore be a very general one. THE EASTERN GHATS run in fragmentary spurs and ranges down the Madras side of India, receding inland, and leaving broad tracts between their base and the coast. THE WESTERN GHATS form the great sea-wall for the Bombay Presidency, with only a narrow strip between them and the shore. At one part, they rise in magnificent precipices and headlands out of the ocean, and truly look like colossal 'landing stairs' from the sea. The Eastern and the Western Gháts meet at an angle near Cape Comorin, and so complete the three sides

of the interior tableland. The inner plateau itself lies far below the snow line, and its ordinary elevation seldom exceeds from 2000 to 3000 feet. Its best known hills are the NILGIRIS (Blue Mountains), which contain the summer capital of Madras, UTAKAMAND, 7000 feet above the sea. The highest point is DODABETTA PEAK, 8760 feet, at the southern extremity of Mysore. This wide region of highlands sends its waters chiefly to the eastern coast. The drainage from the north edge of the three-sided tableland falls into the Ganges. The Narbadá (Nerbudda) runs along the southern base of the Vindhyás which form that edge, and carries their drainage due west into the Gulf of Cambay. The Tápti flows almost parallel to the Nerbudda, a little to the southward, and bears to the same gulf the waters from the Sátpura Hills. But from this point, proceeding southwards, the Western Gháts rise into a high unbroken barrier between the Bombay coast and the waters of the inner tableland. The drainage has therefore to make its way right across India to the eastwards, now twisting round hill ranges, now rushing down the valleys between them, until the rain which the Bombay sea-breeze drops upon the Western Gháts, finally falls into the Bay of Bengal. In this way the three great rivers of the Madras Presidency—namely, the GODAVARI, KISTNA, and KAVERI (Cauvery)—rise in the mountains overhanging the Bombay coast, and traverse the whole breadth of the central tableland before they reach the ocean on the eastern shores of India.

The entire geography of the two coasts of the Indian Peninsula is determined by the characteristics of these two mountain ranges. On the east, the country is comparatively open, and everywhere accessible to the spread of civilisation. It is here that all the great kingdoms of Southern India have fixed their capitals. Along the west, only a narrow strip of lowland intervenes between the barrier range and the seaboard. The inhabitants are cut off from communication with the interior, and have been left to develop a civilisation of their own. Again, the east coast is a comparatively dry region. Except in the deltas of the great rivers, the crops are dependent upon a local rainfall which rarely exceeds 40 inches in the year. The soil is poor, the general elevation high, and the mountains are not profusely covered with forest. In this region the chief aim of the Forest Department is to preserve a sufficient supply of trees for fuel; but on the west, all these conditions are reversed. The rivers are mere hill torrents, but the south-west monsoon brings an unfailing rainfall in such abundance as to clothe even the hill slopes with a most luxuriant vegetation. The average all along the coast from Khandesh to Malabar reaches 100 inches, and in many exceptional spots high up among the mountains more than 200 inches of rain are registered in every year. What the western coast loses in regular cultivation it gains in the natural wealth of its primeval

forests, which display the most magnificent scenery in all India. The mountains of Kánara, Malabar, Mysore, and Coorg furnish the Forest Department with the richest supplies. Along the highest ridges, on both slopes, grow the trees constituting what is technically known as 'the evergreen forest.' Chief among these is the *pún* (Calophyllum angustifolium), which often attains the height of 100 feet without branch or bend. No other tree in the world is better suited in every respect for supplying ship's spars and masts. Other timber-trees in this region are the jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), iron-wood (Mesua ferrea), Indian mahogany (Cedrela toona), ebony (Diospyros ebenaster), and *champak* (Michelia champaca). Interspersed among the tall trees grow an infinite variety of shrubs and creepers, among which latter pepper and cardamoms may be noticed for their commercial value. Farther east, sloping towards the plateau of Mysore, but still within the influence of the south-west monsoon, comes the region of 'deciduous forests,' in which the characteristic trees are blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), teak (Tectona grandis), sandal-wood (Santalum album), and bamboo. In both these forest tracts European enterprise has recently introduced the successful cultivation of coffee. In wild beauty, nothing can surpass the luxuriance of a Coorg forest, as viewed from the summit of one of the peaks of the Western Gháts. A waving sea of green, broken into terraces of varying elevation, extends beneath on every side. North and south run parallel ranges of peaks, wooded almost to the summit; while to the west, many thousand feet below, the view is bounded by the blue line of the Arabian Ocean. Wild animals of all kinds swarm in the jungle, and haunt the grassy glades. Of these the most characteristic are the elephant, the tiger, the still more furious bison, the *sámbhar* deer, and the jungle sheep or ibex.

The following details must here suffice with regard to the Gháts, the reader being referred for further information to the separate articles on the Districts in which they are situated:—

THE EASTERN GHATS commence in Balasor District, Orissa, and form a continuation of the hills which close the south-western side of the Gangetic valley. They pass southwards through the Districts of Cuttack and Purí (in Orissa), enter the Madras Presidency in Ganjám District, and sweep southwards through the Districts of Vizagapatam, Godávari, Nellore, Chengalpat, South Arcot, Trichinopoli, and Tinnevelli. They run at a distance of from 50 to 150 miles from the coast, except in Ganjám and Vizagapatam, where in places they almost abut on the Bay of Bengal. Average elevation, about 1500 feet. Geological formation, granite, with gneiss and mica slate, with clay slate, hornblende, and primitive limestone overlying. 'The surface of the country,' says Thornton, 'appears to consist of the debris of granitic rocks as far north as the Pennár, in approaching which, the

laterite or iron clay formation expands over a large surface. From the Kistna northwards, the granite is often penetrated by injected veins of trap and dikes of greenstone. Passing on to Vizagapatam and Ganjám, syenite and gneiss predominate, occasionally covered by laterite.'

THE WESTERN GHATS start from the north of the valley of the Tápti, and run southwards through Khándesh, Násik, Tanna, Sátára, Ratnágiri, Kánara, and Malabar, and the Native States of Cochin and Travancore. Length of range from the Tápti to the Pálghát gap, 800 miles; south of this pass they run for about 200 miles farther, to Cape Comorin. The coast line from the sea to their base is generally flat and low, but the hills rise abruptly on the western side to an average height of 3000 feet. On the eastern side, the slope is more gradual. Highest peaks in the northern section—MAHABALESHWAR, 4700 feet; Purandhar, 4472; and Sinhgarh, 4162. South of Mahábaleshwar, the elevation diminishes to about 1000 feet above sea level. Farther south the elevation again increases, and attains its maximum towards Coorg, where the highest peaks vary from 5500 to 7000 feet, and where the main range joins the Nílgiris. South of the Pálghát gap, many peaks rise to the same elevation. 'Geologically,' says Thornton, 'it may be observed generally, that the great core of the Western Gháts is of primary formation, enclosed by alternating strata of more recent origin. These strata, however, have been broken up by prodigious outbursts of volcanic rocks; and from Mahábaleshwar to the Tápti, the overlying rock of the Western Gháts is stated to be exclusively of the trap formation. . . . In consequence of the boldness of the declivities and the precipitous character of the faces of the trap rocks, the summits in many parts of the range are nearly inaccessible. The natural strength of these portions has in many instances been increased by art; and the hill forts in all ages of Indian history have been regarded as the bulwarks of the Deccan. The trap formation terminates southward on the sea-coast in about lat. 18° N., and is succeeded by laterite. This last-mentioned formation extends southwards as the overlying rock, almost without interruption, to Cape Comorin, covering the base of the mountains and the narrow strip of land that separates them from the sea.'

Gháziábád.—South-western *tahsíl* of Meerut (Mirath) District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the bank of the river Jumna; traversed by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi, and East Indian Railways; intersected by the Hindan river, and irrigated by the Ganges and Eastern Jumna Canals. Area, 494 square miles, of which 353 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 253,037; land revenue, £39,532; total Government revenue, £43,089; rental paid by cultivators, £78,786; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 6d.

Gházíábád.—Municipal town in Meerut District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 28° 39′ 55″ N., long. 77° 28′ 10″ E.; distant from Meerut 28 miles south-west; pop. (1872), 7365, thus classified—4762 Hindus, 2598 Musalmáns, and 5 Christians. Has risen greatly in importance of late years, owing to the junction of the East Indian Railway with the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line at this point. The branch to Delhi also diverges from Gházíábád junction. Founded in 1740 by the Wazír Ghází-ud-dín, brother of Salábat Jang, ruler of the Deccan (Dakshin), from whom it derived its original name of Ghází-ud-dín-nagar, shortened to the present form on the opening of the railway. In May 1857, a small British force from Meerut encountered and defeated the Delhi rebels, who had marched hither to attack them. Several *saráis*, *tahsíli*, school-house, municipal hall, police station, 6 mosques, several Hindu temples (the handsomest known as Mandir Dudheswarnáth). Numerous barracks, bungalows, and houses for native employés have sprung up in the neighbourhood of the railway station. Rapidly improving trade. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £827; from taxes, £579, or 1s. 1¼d. per head of population (10,366) within municipal limits.

Gházípur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 18′ 31″ and 26° 2′ 10″ N. lat., and between 83° 6′ 20″ and 84° 42′ 40″ E. long., with an area of 2167 square miles, and a population in 1872 of 1,345,570 persons. Gházípur is a District in the Benares Division. It is bounded on the north by Azamgarh and Sáran; on the west by Benares and Jaunpur; on the south by Sháhábád; and on the east by Sáran. The administrative headquarters are at GHAZIPUR town.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Gházípur forms part of the great alluvial plain of the Ganges, and stretches in equal portions on either side of the sacred river. The northern Subdivision lies between the Gumti and the Gogra (Ghagra), whose confluences with the main stream mark its western and eastern limits respectively. The southern tract is a much smaller strip of country, enclosed between the Karamnása and the great river itself. No hill or natural eminence is to be found within the District on either side; but both north and south of the Ganges the country may be divided into an upland and a low-lying tract. The higher land consists of the ancient alluvial bed, deposited at some very early period by the vast streams which carried down toward the sea the detritus of the Himálayan range. Through this elevated plateau, the modern rivers at a later date have cut for themselves broad channels, flooded at certain periods of the year, but forming the low-lying tilth in the harvest season. The process of denudation still goes on with every inundation, and the upland slopes are gradually diminishing in extent under the erosive action of the

principal streams. In high floods, the Ganges and its great affluent the Gogra join their waters, sweeping across the entire delta enclosed between their beds. On such occasions, the villages, raised on artificial embankments, stand out like islands in the midst of an inland sea; but when the floods have subsided, stagnant pools collect in the pits from which the embankments were taken, thus rendering the population sickly and feeble. The principal rivers are the Ganges, Gogra, Sarju, Gumti, and Mangái. The first four are permanent streams, which flow during the dry season in narrow channels, cut through their own alluvial deposits. A few lakes are scattered about the District, formed where a river has deserted its former channel, and a bank of silt has dammed up the abandoned bed at either end. The largest is that of Suraha in *pargana* Khand, once a northern bend of the Ganges, but now an almost isolated sheet of water, some 4 miles broad by 5 long. All the river channels are liable to frequent changes, and backwaters or side streams cut up the District into numerous alluvial islands. The soil in many portions of the upland shows a tendency to develop the noxious saline efflorescnce known as *reh*, the frequency of which is increased by the obstruction to drainage arising from the cultivation of rice. With this exception, however, the greater part of Gházípur is fertile and fully cultivated. Game is comparatively scarce, owing to the general prevalence of tillage; and deer, which prove so destructive to the standing crops in neighbouring Districts, are here almost unknown.

History.—Tradition refers the foundation of the city of Gházípur to a mythical hero, Rájá Gádh, who is said to have called his stronghold Gádhipur. The name, however, as will be presently proved, is of Musalmán origin, and, in fact, the town was not really founded until the 14th century A.D. Nevertheless, the District can boast a long history of its own, stretching far back into the earliest days of Aryan colonization. Carved monoliths bear witness to a very ancient Hindu civilisation; and one in particular, at Bhitri, contains an inscription of Samudra Gupta, who probably reigned over the surrounding country as far as Kanauj about the end of the 4th century A.D. Indeed, the monuments found in Gházípur have been of inestimable value in enabling us to unravel the intricate history of the Ganges valley before the advent of the Musalmáns. The result of late investigations, as applied to these remains, may thus be briefly summarized. At the time of Sákya Muni, B.C. 550, the country from Sayyidpur to Baxar was already the seat of a civilised Aryan nationality, whose metropolis was situated near the former town, where numerous ruins and architectural remains of the earliest age are still found. The country embraced the religion of the new teacher, and formed a portion of the Buddhist Empire under Asoka, who reigned about the

year 250 B.C. Asoka erected here one of his well-known pillars, and at least two *stupas*. From the 4th to the 7th century of our era, Gházípur was included in the territories of the Gupta dynasty of Magadha, in whose columns and coins the District is unusually rich. Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese pilgrim, about the year 630 A.D., found this tract inhabited by a mixed population of Buddhists and Hindus. He visited a monastery built by Asoka, and mentions many other buildings, whose sites have been identified with a high degree of probability. After the extirpation of Buddhism by Bráhmanism in Northern India, the aborigines appear to have recovered these regions from their Aryan lords, who were perhaps weakened by internecine religious strife. In the interval between the Gupta monarchy and the Muhammadan conquest, an age of darkness supervenes, during which Gházípur was apparently in the hands of Bhar chieftains. The ancient Aryan civilisation would seem to have been utterly trampled out, as no great monuments or architectural remains mark this intermediate period. But just before the Musalmán inroads, the Bráhmans and Rájputs from the north and west, driven from their own homes by the advancing wave of Islám, moved eastward to occupy the neglected tracts which had fallen for awhile into the hands of the indigenous races. The descendants of this second Aryan colony form the modern landowning class of the District; but they have no traditions with respect to their predecessors, and attribute the ancient monuments of their fellow-tribesmen to the Bhar Rájás, whom their fathers found in possession of the soil. The Rájput settlers, however, did not long enjoy their independence in the new home to which they had migrated. The aggressive Muhammadan power followed eastward close upon their heels. In the year 1193, Behar and the middle Ganges valley were conquered by Kutab-ud-dín, the general of Muhammad Ghori, first Musalmán Emperor of Delhi. He had defeated and slain the Hindu champion, Jái Chánd, Rahtor Rájá of Benares and Kanauj, in the Jumna ravines of Etawah; and the whole country as far as Bengal lay at the feet of the conqueror. During the succeeding century, we hear little of the present District; but about the year 1330, the city of Gházípur was founded (according to a probable tradition) by a Sayyid chief named Masáúd, who slew the local Hindu Rájá in battle. Sultán Muhammad Tughlak thereupon granted him the estates of his conquered enemy, with the title of *Ghází*, or 'Champion of the Faith,' which gave the name to the newly-founded city. From 1394 to 1476, Gházípur was incorporated in the dominions of the Sharki dynasty at JAUNPUR, who maintained their independence for nearly a century as rival to the Lodi rulers of Delhi. After their fall, it was reunited to the dominions of the Western Sultáns, and was conquered, like the surrounding country, by the Mughal Emperor Bábar in 1529. Ten years

later, however, the southern border of the District was the scene of a decisive engagement between the Afghán Prince Sher Sháh and Humáyun, the son of Bábar, at Baxar, just within the Sháhábád border, in which the latter was utterly defeated and driven out of the country. Sher Sháh's victory settled the fate of Gházípur for the next twenty years. It remained in the undisturbed possession of the Afgháns, not only through the reigns of the three intrusive emperors belonging to the dynasty of Súr, but throughout the restored supremacy of Humáyun. It was not till the third year of Akbar that Gházípur was recovered for the Mughal throne by Khán Zamán, Governor of Jaunpur, from whom the town of Zamániá derives its name. After his rebellion and death in 1566, the District was thoroughly united to the Delhi Empire, and organized under the *subah* of Allahábád. During the palmy days of Akbar's successors, the annals of Gházípur are purely formal and administrative, until the rise of the Nawáb Wazírs of Oudh at the beginning of the last century. In 1722, Saádat Khán made himself practically independent as Viceroy of Oudh. In 1738, he appointed Shaikh Abdullá, a native of the District who had fled from the service of the Governor of Patná, to the command of Gházípur. Abdullá has left his mark in the city by his splendid buildings, the chief of which, now in ruins, is known as the Palace of the Forty Pillars. He also constructed a garden, the Nawáb's Bágh, near which he was buried under a handsome mausoleum. His son Fazl Alí succeeded him, but, after various vicissitudes, was expelled by Rájá Balwant Sinh of Benares. Balwant Sinh died in 1770, but the Nawáb Wazír permitted his illegitimate son, Chait Sinh, to inherit his title and principality. In 1775, the suzerainty of the Benares Province was ceded to the British by the Wazír Asaf-ul-daulá. The new Government continued Cháit Sinh in his fief until the year 1781, when he was deposed by Warren Hastings. From this final introduction of the British rule till the Mutiny, Gházípur enjoyed undisturbed peace.

In 1805, Lord Cornwallis died here, and a monument, with a statue by Flaxman, was erected to his memory. In 1857, order was preserved till the mutiny at Azamgarh became known, on 3d June. The fugitives from Azamgarh arrived on that day, and local outbreaks took place. The 65th Native Infantry, however, remained staunch, and 100 European troops on their way to Benares were detained, so that order was tolerably re-established by the 16th of June. No further disturbance occurred till the news of the Dinapur mutiny arrived on the 27th of July. The 65th then stated their intention of joining Kuár Sinh's force; but after the rebel defeat at Arrah, they were quietly disarmed, and some European troops were stationed at Gházípur. No difficulties arose till the siege of Azamgarh was raised in April, when the rebels came flying down the Gogra and across the Ganges to Arrah. The

disorderly element again rose, and by the end of June the eastern half of the District was utterly disorganized. In July 1858, a force was sent to Ballia which drove the rebels out of the Doáb, while another column cleared all the *parganás* north of the Ganges. The *parganás* south of the river remained in rebellion till the end of October, when troops were sent across which expelled the rebels and completely restored order.

Population.—Ghâzípur is one of the numerous Districts which, after suffering a loss of population about the middle of the present century, has partially recovered its lost ground of late years. In 1853, the total number of inhabitants was returned at 1,596,324. In 1865, it had sunk to 1,342,455, showing a decrease of 253,869 persons, or 16 per cent., in spite of an intermediate enlargement of its area by 41 square miles. By 1872, however, although 55 square miles of territory had been transferred to other Districts, the population had risen again to a total of 1,345,570, which showed an increase of 3115 persons, or ·2 per cent. The statistics of density display these changes even more conspicuously and truthfully than a mere enumeration upon a constantly shifting area. The Census of 1853 gave an average of 732 persons to the square mile; that of 1865 showed only 604 to the square mile; while that of 1872 disclosed a density of 621 to the square mile. The enumeration of 1872 was taken over an area of 2167 square miles, and it returned a total population of 1,345,570 persons, distributed among 3725 villages or townships, and inhabiting 285,007 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 621; villages per square mile, 1·7; houses per square mile, 131; persons per village, 361; persons per house, 4·7. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 696,572; females, 648,829; proportion of males, 51·7 per cent. Classified according to age, there were (with the like exception), under twelve years—males, 236,069; females, 178,197; total, 414,266, or 30·79 per cent. of the population. As regards religion, Ghâzípur contains about the average proportion of Hindus and Muhammadans which is found throughout the North-Western Provinces. The Census showed 1,221,810 adherents of the Hindu faith, or 90·7 per cent., as against 123,455 Musalmáns, or 9·3 per cent. There were also 136 Christians. The higher Hindu castes were returned as follows:—Bráhmans, 123,012; Rájputs, 295,355; and Banias, 49,538. The lower tribes are represented by the Ahírs, 171,216; Chamárs, 122,075; Káyasths, 22,480; and Kurmís, 18,136. Amongst the Musalmáns, the Shaikhs numbered 26,940; Sayyids, 4525; Mughals, 570; and Patháns, 18,452. The *pancháyats*, or caste guilds, have here as elsewhere very much the practical effect of trades-unions; and they also regulate matters of social arrangement, petty debt, occupancy of land,

and domestic questions generally. The District is permanently assessed, and both landowners and cultivators are richer and more independent than in the country farther west. In the poorer parts, the peasantry are generally in debt; but in the more fertile tracts of the District, where they have mostly rights of occupancy, they are well to do, and are (perhaps in consequence) the most turbulent and litigious community in the North-Western Provinces. There are sixteen towns in the District with a population (1872) exceeding 5000 souls—namely, GHAZIPUR, 38,853; MAHATWAR KHAS, 8975; SHIUPUR DIAR, 9279; GAHMAR, 9050; SHERPUR, 7958; RIOTIPUR, 9323; BARAH, 5424; CHIT, 5821; NARHI, 5527; BANSDIH, 7319; RIOTI, 7700; MANIAR, 5285; BALLIA, 8521; BAIRIA, 5589; SONBARSA, 7162; and RASRA, 7261. These give a total urban population of 148,047 souls. The agricultural population was returned at 705,609 souls, or 51·7 per cent. of the whole.

Agriculture.—The greater portion of the cultivable soil in Gházípur is already fully tilled, there being a total of 1546 square miles under cultivation, with an available margin of only 229 square miles. The black earth called *kharril*, resembling the *már* of Bundelkhand, is common in the lowlands and in the plateau south of the Ganges. It produces a good spring crop without irrigation, but its character is much improved if sand is spread over the surface; otherwise it is liable to dry up into deeply-fissured masses of hardened clay. In all the Gangetic lowland, the upper layer of a well-raised tract always consists of alluvial mould; but the sub-soil is sandy. The rivers which have had the longest course from the hills, deposit mud; the others leave behind them beds of sand; but the Ganges forms alternate layers of each. Hence a flood from the Gogra or the Sarju is injurious to the fields, while an inundation of the Ganges benefits the crops. The harvests are those common to the whole north-western plain. The *kharíf* crops are sown after the first rains in June, and reaped in October or November. The early rice, however, is sometimes harvested as soon as the end of August, while cotton is not ready for picking till February. The other autumn staples are the millets *bájra* and *joár*, and *moth*. The *rabí* or spring crops are sown in October or November, and reaped in March or April. They consist of wheat, barley, oats, vetch, and pulses. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both harvests; and land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. As a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a plot of early rice is reaped in August or September, and a second crop of some kind is sown in its place for the spring harvest. If rain is delayed beyond the 20th of June, this keeps back the sowing and endangers the yield of the early autumn crops.

At the settlement of Gházípur District, made in 1789, and sub-

sequently declared permanent, fraternities or brotherhoods belonging to various Hindu and Muhammadan tribes were recognised by Government, in the great majority of cases, as the owners of the soil. The settlements were concluded with a few head-men on each estate, who were the representatives of the whole community. In some cases, by accident rather than by design, the head-man of a proprietary community was treated as sole owner. In no instance did Government admit the existence of any divided ownership, or of superior and inferior proprietary rights. No *talukdárs* were therefore recognised, though there were immense *talukás* (single estates) held by brotherhoods of shareholders. A detailed record of the extent of ownership of the various shareholders was not attempted till 1840. Meanwhile, estates were sold for arrears of revenue, and till after the Land Act of 1859, the purchasers were constantly at law with the old landowners, who rented and cultivated the fields they formerly possessed. In 1877, wages ruled as follows:—Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. Women are paid about one-fifth less than men, while boys and girls get from one-half to one-third the wages of adults. Agricultural hands are most frequently paid in grain. In villages, payments for labour are made daily. The following were the average prices-current of food grains in 1876:—Wheat, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; rice, 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.; *joár*, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The District is not specially subject to flood, drought, or blight, and it has suffered from no great famine during the present century. It possesses ample means of external communication in the rivers Ganges, Gogra, and Gumti, and the East Indian Railway. Much of the Ballia Subdivision, which consists of low alluvial islands, is annually submerged; and if autumn crops have been sown on any part of it, they are of course lost in the floods. In 1783, severe scarcity occurred from the failure of the rains in the previous year, but there were no deaths from famine as far as known. In 1803, the rice crop was destroyed and the spring harvest endangered. In 1837-38, there was again a scarcity, but no actual famine occurred. There were also partial droughts in 1859-60, 1864-65, and 1865-66, besides floods in 1871-72. The last scarcity was in 1868-69, when only 21 inches of rain fell in twelve months. The greater part of the autumn and about half the spring crops were lost, and severe distress resulted. Relief operations were set on foot, and continued from June to September 1869, but no actual deaths from famine occurred.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The chief imports into the District are English piece-goods and yarn, cotton, salt, spices, and grain. The

principal exports are country cloth, sugar, fuller's earth, oil-seeds, and hides. The headquarters of the Government Opium Department for the North-Western Provinces are at Ghâzípur. The poppy has been cultivated in India since the 16th century; and when the English first acquired the Benares Province, they farmed the monopoly to contractors. In 1797, an opium agent was appointed for Benares, but natives still managed the manufacture, and were paid by commission. In 1852, Lord Dalhousie introduced the present system. There are 10 deputies under the agent, and each of these has one or two European assistants. The 10 divisions are again subdivided into 39 offices, each supervised by a native overseer. Licences are granted and advances made to the cultivators, who in return engage to place a certain amount of land under opium. After the fields are sown, they are measured carefully, and estimates made of the quantity of opium which each cultivator ought to produce. In March and April, the opium is collected and brought to the factory, where it is weighed, and its consistence is tested, before the cultivator is paid for it. The amount disbursed in working expenses at the Ghâzípur factory is £10,125 per annum. The opium is classified according to its consistence, and is then made up into special balls, which are packed in boxes and despatched to Calcutta for sale by auction. Carbonate of soda is manufactured from the *reh* or saline efflorescence of the barren *usar* plains, and exported to Calcutta. Saltpetre is also largely prepared from the same source. The *parganás* south of the Ganges are traversed by the East Indian Railway for a length of 24 miles; there are three stations within the District—at Zamániá, Dildárnagar, and Gahmar. Three stations in Sháhábád District are also situated within easy distances from portions of Ghâzípur. Zamániá, connected with the *ghát* opposite Ghâzípur by a metalled road, which continues 5 miles farther south to the Grand Trunk Road, is the principal station in the District, and the outlet for most of the traffic from Ghâzípur, Azamgarh, and Gorakhpur. At present, however, the heavy commerce of the District is conveyed by the Ganges. Good roads, of which 112 miles are metalled, connect all the principal centres with one another and with the adjacent towns. A great bathing fair is held at Ballia in the month of October, on the full moon of Kártik, and attended by about 50,000 persons. Another, of inferior sanctity, held on the same day at Chochakpur, attracts some 10,000 visitors.

Administration.—The ordinary District staff consists of a Collector-Magistrate, 2 Joint Magistrates, an Assistant, and 2 Deputies. Ghâzípur is the seat of a Civil and Sessions Judge, who has no other District under him. The whole amount of revenue raised in the District, for imperial, municipal, or local purposes, amounted in 1876 to £200,000, being at the rate of 2s. 10¾d. per head of the population. In the same

year, the total strength of the regular police force was 526 officers and men, and the cost of their maintenance was returned at £7576. These figures show 1 policeman to every 4·1 square miles of the area and to every 2557 of the population; while the expenditure was at the rate of £3, 10s. per square mile and 1¼d. per inhabitant. The District jail is at Gházípur town. In 1875, it contained a daily average of 530 prisoners, of whom 490 were male and 40 female. The average cost per head amounted to £3, 12s. 10½d., and the average earnings of each inmate to £1. The District possesses 21 imperial and 7 local post offices; and telegraph offices are connected with each of the stations on the East Indian Railway. Education was carried on in 1875 by 240 schools, with a total roll of 7824 scholars, being an average of 1 school to every 9·02 square miles, and 5·8 scholars per thousand of the population. The expenditure on the educational establishment amounted to £3892, of which £1198 was paid from the provincial treasury and £2694 from local sources. For fiscal purposes, Gházípur is subdivided into 6 *tahsíls* and 18 *parganás.* The District contains two municipalities—Gházípur and Ballia. In 1875-76, their joint income amounted to £4742, and their expenditure to £3846. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 2d. per head of the population within municipal limits.

Sanitary Aspects. — Gházípur is one of the hottest and dampest Districts in the North-Western Provinces. In 1869, the mean annual temperature was 80° F.; the lowest monthly mean was 61° F. in January, and the highest 98° F. in May. The average annual rainfall for the eleven years from 1860 to 1871 was 40·1 inches; during this period, the maximum was 50·5 inches in 1861, and the minimum was 21·5 inches in 1868. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1875 was 24,566, or 18·25 per thousand of the population. The average death-rate for the previous six years was 16·56 per thousand. There are 7 dispensaries in the District, at Gházípur, Ballia, Sayyidpur, Rasra, and Pírnagar. During the year 1876, they afforded relief to 75,085 persons, of whom 947 were in-door and 74,138 out-door patients. The total receipts were £800, and the cost of the establishments, £361.

Gházípur.—*Tahsíl* of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the north bank of the Ganges. Area, 432 square miles, of which 267 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 286,046; land revenue, £32,070; total Government revenue, £33,952; rental paid by cultivators, £63,769.

Gházípur.—City, municipality, and administrative headquarters of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the low alluvial northern bank of the Ganges, 64 miles north-east of Benares. Lat. 25° 33′ 36″ N.; long. 83° 35′ 13″ E.; area, 416 acres; pop.

(1872), 38,853. Founded, according to Hindu tradition, by Rájá Gádh, an eponymous hero, from whom it took the name of Gádhipur: according to Muhammadan history, by the Sayyid chief Masáúd, about the year 1330, from whose title of Málik-us-Saádat Gházi the city really derives its name. For later history and Mutiny narrative, see Ghazipur District. Palace of the Forty Pillars, built by Shaikh Abdullá, governor under the Oudh viceroys, now lies in ruins. Tombs of Masáúd, Abdullá, and Fazl Alí also adorn the city. Monument to Lord Cornwallis, who died here in 1805, consisting of a domed quasi-Grecian building, with a marble statue by Flaxman. Metalled road runs to Zamániá Station on the East Indian Railway, 13½ miles south-west. Trade in sugar, tobacco, coarse long-cloth, and rose-water. Headquarters of the Government Opium Department, where all the opium from the North-Western Provinces is collected and manufactured under a monopoly. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £3912; from taxes, £2709, or 1s. 4¼d. per head of population (40,000) within municipal limits.

Gházípur.—*Tashíl* of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces, on the north bank of the Jumna. Area, 266 square miles, of which 152 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 89,497; land revenue, £22,603; total Government revenue, £24,864; rental paid by cultivators, £32,813.

Ghází-ud-dín-nagar.—Town in Meerut District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* Ghaziabad.

Ghazní.—Town and fortress in Afghánistán; situated on the left bank of the river of the same name, 85 miles south-west of Kábul, and 233 miles north-east of Kandahár. Lat. 33° 34′ N., long. 68° 19′ E. The town may be described as an irregular square, each side averaging 400 yards, and having a total circuit of about 1750 yards, inclusive of the citadel. It is surrounded by a high wall, and flanked at irregular intervals by towers. The city itself is composed of dirty irregular streets of houses, several storeys high, and will not bear comparison with either Kábul or Kandahár. The citadel is situated at the north angle of the town. Ghazní was captured by Sir John Keane's force during the first Afghán war, being carried by storm on the 23d July 1839. At the time of the Afghán rising in 1841, the citadel was garrisoned by the 27th Bengal Native Infantry. The place was besieged by the Afgháns, and the garrison forced to retire to the citadel. The little force held out, after suffering great privations, from November 1841 till the 6th March 1842, when, their supply of water failing, they were forced to evacuate the fort, and afterwards to surrender to the Afghán chief. The officers were brutally treated, and the Sepoys either sold into slavery or murdered. In September 1842, General Nott recaptured Ghazní. The citadel was destroyed before the with-

drawal of General Nott's army to India. During the last Afghán campaign, General Sir D. Stewart took Ghazní, on his march to Kábul, after a severe action, 19th April 1880; occupied the place for a few days, and then moved on to join General Roberts at Kábul. He placed Sardár Alam Khán at the head of the administration, to hold the town on behalf of the new Amír, Abdur Rahman Khán. Ghazní formed the centre of intrigue of Yákub's faction after the abdication of Yákub as Amír. The town gave its name to the founder of the Musalmán Empire of India, and Mahmúd of Ghazní (997-1030) was only the forerunner of a long series of invaders who streamed southwards over the passes from Afghánistán.

Gheriá. — Town and fort in Ratnagiri District, Bombay. — *See* VIZIADRUG.

Gheriá.—Small town to the South of Sútí, Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 30′ 15″ N., long. 88° 8′ 15″ E. Famous as the scene of two important battles—the first in 1740, when the Nawáb Alí Vardí Khán defeated Sarfaráz Khán, his rival for the government of Bengal; the second in 1763, when Mír Kásim, Nawáb of Bengal, after declaring war upon the East Indian Company, was finally defeated and the throne bestowed for the second time upon Mír Jafar.

Ghes.—Chiefship attached to Sambalpúr District, Central Provinces, about 50 miles west of Sambalpúr. Pop. (1870), 5333, residing in 19 villages, on an area of 10 to 12 square miles, of which three-fifths are cultivated, chiefly growing rice. The principal village, Ghes, situated in lat. 21° 11′ 30″ N., long. 83° 20′ E., contains a pop. (1870) of 652, with a fine school-house, attended by about 130 pupils. The chief's family are Binjwáras.

Ghoghá.—Town in Ahmedábád District, Bombay.—*See* GOGO.

Ghogháro.—Government town in Shikárpur District, Sind. Lat. 27° 29′ N., long. 68° 4′ E.; pop. (1872), 1415, viz. Muhammadans, 1175 (chiefly of Mangan, Siál, and Wagan tribes), and Hindus, 240. It possesses a considerable rice trade.

Gholghát.—Village in Húglí District, Bengal. Famous as the site of a fortress built by the Portuguese, which gradually grew into the town and port of HUGLI. Traces of this fort are still visible.

Gholwad. — Seaport town in Tanna District, Bombay. Lat. 20° 5′ N., long. 72° 46′ E. Annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £2420; imports, £18.

Ghorásar.—Petty State within the Mahi Kánta Agency in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 8273; gross revenue, £2200. Products—cotton and the ordinary cereals. For administrative purposes, the State is included in the Wátrak Kánta Subdivision of the Mahi Kánta Territory. There are 2 schools, with 139 pupils. The chief, who enjoys the title of Thákur, is a Hindu of the

Koli caste. The present (1875) chief, Suráj Mall, is twenty-six years of age. The succession follows the rule of primogeniture, but there is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. An annual tribute is payable of £48, 16s. to the British Government, and £350 to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Chief town, Ghorásar, situated in lat. 23° 28′ N., long. 73° 20′ E.

Ghoríbári.—*Táluk* of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind; situated between 24° 5′ and 24° 34′ N. lat., and 67° 21′ 15″ and 68° 1′ E. long.; pop. (1872), 32,362; area, 537 square miles; revenue (1873-74), £8363, viz. £7505 imperial and £858 local.

Ghotána.—Municipal town in Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind. Lat. 25° 44′ 45″ N., long. 68° 27′ E.; pop. (1872), 953, including 553 Muhammadans and 341 Hindus (chiefly Muhános and Lohános). Municipal revenue (1873-74), £146; rate of taxation, 3s. per head. Being situated only 2 miles from the landing-place on the Indus, where the products of Shikárpur, Adam-jo-Tando, etc. are received for re-exportation, Ghotána possesses a large transit trade in grain, cotton, seeds, and potash; annual value, £12,600. The local trade, chiefly in cereals, has an annual value of £1300.

Ghotki.—*Táluk* of Shikárpur District, Sind; situated between 27° 46′ 45″ and 28° 18′ N. lat., and between 69° 10′ and 69° 36′ E. long.; pop. (1872), 46,406; area, 372 square miles; revenue (1873-74), £10,212, viz. £9372 imperial and £839 local.

Ghotki.—Municipal town in Shikárpur District, Sind. Lat. 28° 0′ 15″ N., long. 69° 21′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 3689, viz. Muhammadans, 1803 (chiefly of Pathán, Malak, Sayyid, Mochi, and Lohár tribes), and Hindus, 1867 (principally Banias). Founded about 1747. Municipal revenue (1873-74), £294; disbursements, £156; incidence of local taxation, 1s. 7d. per head. Situated on the railway. Sessions court-house, headquarters of a *múkhtiárkár*, post office, travellers' bungalow. Proposed headquarters of Rohri Deputy Collector. The mosque of Pír Músa Sháh, the founder of the city, 113 feet long by 65 feet broad, is the largest in Sind, and of very considerable sanctity. Local trade chiefly in cereals, indigo, wool, and sugar-cane. The Lohárs of Ghotki are famed for their metal-work; wood carving and staining are also very creditably executed.

Ghugus.—A large village in Chánda District, Central Provinces; 13 miles west of Chánda town. Lat. 19° 56′ 30″ N., long. 79° 9′ 30″ E. It contains three temple-caves, and near them some carved stones apparently meant to represent animals. Near the village, about A.D. 1700, was fought the battle between the Gond king Rám Sháh and the rebel princes Bágbá, Agbá, and Rágbá. Agbá fell on the field, where his tomb may still be seen; and hard by is the 'Ghorá Ghát,' so called from Bágbá's fabled leap across the Wardha. On the bank of this river, between Ghugús and Chándur, a seam of coal, 33 feet thick,

crops out on the surface, and the Ghugús field is estimated to cover 3 square miles. An experimental shaft was sunk, but has now been abandoned.

Ghusal.—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, across the range of the Himálayas which forms the southern boundary of Kunáwar. Lat. 31° 21′ N., long. 78° 13′ E. Two other passes, the Guná and the Nítrang, lie within half a mile to the north-west; but Thornton states that only one of the three is ever practicable at any particular season. They lead from Sangla to Chuára. Elevation above sea level, 15,851 feet.

Ghusri.—Village in Húglí District, Bengal. Manufacture of *dhutis* and *sáris* carried on according to European methods. Permanent market, with large trade in agricultural products.

Ghutasán Deví.—Hill pass in Sirmúr State, Punjáb, lying over the crest of a low transverse ridge, which runs across the Khiárda Dún from the sub-Himálayan chain to the Siwáliks. Lat. 30° 31′ N., long. 77° 28′ E. Thornton says that the ridge divides the waters of the Bhuta, a tributary of the Jumna, from those of the Markanda, flowing south-west toward the Sutlej. The route from Dehrá to Nahan runs through this pass. Elevation above sea level, 2500 feet.

Gidhaur.—Town in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 51′ 20″ N., long. 86° 14′ 25″ E. The site of a deserted hill frontier town, and interesting as the seat of one of the oldest of the noble families of Behar. In the neighbourhood are the ruins of an ancient castle, the erection of which is often attributed to Sher Sháh, but it is probably of much earlier origin. The Gidhaur family, which now after twenty-two generations is still wealthy and influential, was founded about 1168 A.D. by Bír Vikram Sinh, a Rájput of the Chandrabansí or Lunar sept. Puran Mall, the 9th Rájá, built the great temple of BAIDYANATH; and in the Sanskrit verse inscribed above the inner door of the sanctuary he is called *ure pati*, or 'king of men,' a title that bears witness to the position of the family centuries ago. Sir Jái Mangal, who has lately retired from active life, was created a Mahárájá in 1865, and a Knight Commander of the Star of India in 1866, in consequence of his loyal exertions on our behalf during the Santál Rebellion of 1853 and the Mutiny of 1857.

Gidhaur Galli.—Pass in Pesháwar District, Punjab, lying on the road from Pesháwar to Attock, 5 miles north-west of the latter town. Lat. 33° 56′ N., long. 72° 12′ E. Derives its name (the Jackal's Neck) from its extreme narrowness, being not more than 10 or 12 feet wide, and bounded on either side by considerable hills. Its military importance is slight, from the facility with which it may be turned.

Gidu-jo-Tando. — Government town in Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind. Lat. 25° 22′ 15″ N., long. 68° 21′ E.; pop. (1872), 1832, viz. Muhammadans, 1170, and Hindus, 662. Situated on the Indus, and connected by a fine road, 3½ miles in length, with the city of Haidarábád,

in which municipality it is included. Very large transit trade, chiefly in cotton and grain. A steam ferry connects Gidu-jo-Tando with the railway station of Kotree on the opposite bank of the Indus.

Gigasaran.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 4 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £500. The tribute due is paid by Amreli in lieu of certain villages taken possession of by that State.

Gilgaon.—Ancient chiefship in Chánda District, Central Provinces; containing 12 villages. Most of the area, which measures 26 miles by 16, is covered by hill and forest, the latter containing some good timber, mostly *sál* and *bijesál*. Gilgáon village is situated in lat. 20° 0′ 30″ N., long. 80° 5′ 30″ E.

Gilgit.—Valley in Kashmír State, Punjab, lying on the southern slope of the Hindu Kúsh, between BALTISTAN and CHITRAL. Lat. 35° 47′ N., long. 74° 31′ E. The river Gilgit traverses its centre, and finally joins the Indus a little south-east of the village bearing the same name.

Ginaur.—North-western *tahsíl* of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the northern bank of the Ganges. Area, 310 square miles, of which 176 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 128,788; land revenue, £16,437; total Government revenue, £18,085; rental paid by cultivators, £31,145; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 7⅞d.

Gingi (*Chenji*).—Fort in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 15′ 19″ N., long. 79° 26′ 8″ E.; situated on the road from Kistnagiri to the coast, about half-way between Tindevanam and Trinomalái; 82 miles south-west from Madras, and 50 north-east from Cuddalore, the chief town of the District.

There is no village of Gingi beyond a few houses near the foot of the hills. The interest of the place is exclusively historical. The fortress consists of three strongly fortified hills, connected together by walls of circumvallation. The highest and most important hill is called Rájágiri; the two others being known as Kistnagiri and Chendrayan Drúg. Rájágiri is about 500 or 600 feet high, and consists of a ridge terminating in an overhanging bluff, facing the south, and falling with a precipitous sweep to the plain on the north. On the summit of this bluff stands the citadel. The long walls of circumvallation, already alluded to, enclose an area of over 7 miles in circumference. Before the fortifications existed, the summit of the Rájágiri bluff must have been utterly inaccessible on all sides but the south-west. At this point, where the crest of the ridge meets the base of the bluff, a narrow and steep ravine probably gave a difficult means of access to the top, across which the Hindu engineer built three walls, each about 20 or 25 feet high, rising one behind the other at some little distance, and ren-

dering an attack by escalade in that direction almost impracticable. On the north side, a narrow chasm divides a portion of the rock from the main mass. This chasm, the fortifiers of the rock artificially prolonged and heightened; and where it had a width of about 24 feet and a depth of about 60, they threw a wooden bridge over it, and made the only means of ingress into the citadel through a narrow stone gateway facing the bridge, and about 30 yards from it, with flanking walls fitted with embrasures for guns and loopholed for musketry.

It is not known with certainty who constructed the fort. It is probable that the site was originally built on by the Chola kings, and quasi-authentic history attributes the commencement of the great fort to a son of Vijáya Rangá Náik, the Governor of Tanjore in 1442. The works were completed during the time of the Vijáyanagar kings. The martello towers and cavaliers show traces of European supervision, and some of the more modern embrasures were the work of the French. The great lines of fortification which cross the valley between the three hills, were evidently built at different periods. In their original form, they each consisted of a wall about 5 feet thick, built up of blocks of granite, and filled in with rubble; but subsequently a huge earthen rampart, about 25 or 30 feet thick, has been thrown up behind these walls, and riveted roughly on the inside with stone, while at intervals in this rampart are barracks or guard-rooms.

Several ruins of fine buildings are situated inside the fort. Of these the most remarkable are the two pagodas, the Kaliyána Mahál, the Gymkhána, the granaries, and the I'dgah. There are various *mandaps* (porches) on each of the hills, and a very large granary on the top of Kistnagiri. The most noticeable building of all, perhaps, is the Kaliyána Mahál. This consists of a square court surrounded by rooms for the ladies of the Governor's household. In the middle of this court is a square tower of eight storeys, and altogether about 80 feet high, with a pyramidical roof. The first six storeys are all of the same size and pattern, namely, an arcaded verandah running round a small room, about 8 feet square, and communicating with the storey above by means of small steps. The room on the seventh storey has now no verandah, but there are indications of one having existed formerly. The topmost room is of smaller size than the others. The only other interesting feature in the building is an earthenware pipe leading to the sixth storey, and brought all the way from a tank 600 yards off, outside the walls of the fort, and carried under the wall to the back of the ladies' quarters, and thence over the roof to the Mahál. One of the most singular features about Gingi is the water supply. There are two perennial springs of excellent water on the top of Rájágiri—one outside the gateway of the citadel, and the other on the very summit of the rock. At the foot of the ridge at the back of Rájágiri,

and between it and Chandráyan Drúg, are two tanks, and on the western side of the bluff is a third reservoir constructed to catch the surface drainage. The principal objects of interest are—the great gun on the top of Rájágiri; the Rájá's bathing-stone, a large smooth slab of granite, 15 feet square and 4 or 5 inches thick, near the spot where the palace is said to have stood; and the prisoners' well. This latter is a very singular boulder, about 15 or 20 feet high, poised on a rock near the Chakrakulam and surmounted by a low circular brick wall. It has a natural hollow passing through it like a well, and the bottom, having been blocked up with masonry and the upper edges smoothed with a little masonry work plastered with *chunam*, a natural dry well was formed, into which prisoners are said to have been thrown and allowed to die of starvation. The top of the boulder can only be reached by means of a ladder, but the hollow has now been filled up with rubbish. A little to the south of Rájágiri is a fourth hill called Chakli Drúg. The summit is strongly fortified, but these fortifications are not connected with those of Gingi.

History.—As mentioned above, Gingi was a stronghold of the Vijáyanagar power, till its overthrow by the allied Muhammadan kings of the Deccan in 1564, at Tálikot. It was not till 1669, however, that Bandullá Khán, the Bijápur general, captured the fort of Gingi. The division of his army that effected this was commanded by Sháhjí, father of Sivají the Great. In 1677, the fort fell to Sivají by stratagem, and remained in Marhattá hands for twenty years. In 1690, the armies of the Delhi Emperor, under Zulfikár Khán, were despatched against Gingi with a view to the final extirpation of the Marhattá power. The siege was prolonged for eight years, but the fort fell in 1698, and afterwards became the headquarters of the standing army in Arcot. In 1750, the French captured it by a skilful and daringly executed surprise, and held it with an efficient garrison for eleven years, defeating one attack by the English under Major Kineer in 1752. Stephen Smith took the place after five weeks' siege in 1761. In 1780, it was surrendered to Haidar, but subsequently it played no part of importance in the wars of Southern India. Gingi has long enjoyed the reputation of being one of the most unhealthy localities in the Karnatic. The French are said by Orme to have lost 1200 European soldiers during their eleven years' tenancy of it, and their garrison of Europeans rarely exceeded 100 men. There is no trace, however, of any burial-ground where these men were interred. The place is now deserted, but Government allows an annual maintenance for the preservation of the ruins.

Gingi.—River of South Arcot District, Madras.—*See* ARIAKUPUM.

Girar.—Town in Wardha District, Central Provinces; 37 miles south-east of Wardha. Lat. 20° 40′ N., long. 79° 9′ 30″ E. The shrine of the Musalmán saint, Shaikh Khwája Faríd, crowns the summit of a

neighbouring hill, and attracts a continual flow of devotees, both Hindus and Musalmáns. This holy man was born in Hindustán, and, after wandering for thirty years as a *fakír*, he settled on the Girar Hill about 1244. Two travelling traders once mocked the saint, on which he turned their stock of cocoa-nuts to stone; then moved by their supplications, he created a fresh stock from dry leaves. The traders were so struck by these wonders, that they attached themselves to the saint's service, and their two graves may yet be seen on the hill. The shrine absorbs the revenues of five villages, Girar itself, however, not being among the number. The town has a police outpost, a good village school, and a weekly market. Pop. (1870), 1836.

Girdábádi.—One of the peaks of the Eastern Gháts, in Chinna Kimedi *Zamíndárí*, Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 29′ 44″ N., long. 84° 25′ 18″ E.; 3399 feet above sea level. A Great Trigonometrical Survey station.

Giriyák.—Village on the Panchána river, Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 1′ 45″ N., long. 85° 34′ E; situated in the double range of hills commencing near Gayá, on one of its peaks (about 6 miles in length), which General Cunningham identifies with Fa Hian's Solitary Mountain, suggesting at the same time that its name is derived from *ek-girí*, or 'one hill;' but this statement has been doubted. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton has described the ruins of Giriyák, which are full of archæological interest. They were originally ascended from the north-east, and remains of a road about 12 feet wide, paved with large stone blocks, and winding so as to procure a moderate gradient, still exist. It could, however, never have been practicable for wheeled carriages. At the west end of the ridge, a steep brick slope leads up to a platform, on which there are some granite pillars, probably part of an ancient temple. East of the ridge is an area 45 feet square, called the *chabutara* of Jarasindhu, the centre of which is occupied by a low square pedestal supporting a solid brick column 68 feet in circumference and 55 feet in height. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton considers the general impression that the ruins on this hill are the remains of Jarasindhu's country-house erroneous, for the ascent to Giriyák must always have been too arduous to render it a place of luxurious retirement.

Girnár.—Sacred hill, with ruined temples, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; situated about 10 miles east of Junágarh town. Lat. 21° 30′ N., long. 70° 42′ E. The hill rises to about 3500 feet above sea level, and forms one of the sacred seats of Jainism, only second in importance to Palitána. A rock at the foot of the hill outside the town is covered with a set of Asoka's inscriptions, 250 B.C. Another inscription (150 A.D.) relates how the local monarch, Rudra Dama, defeated the king of the Deccan; while a third (457 A.D.) records the bursting of the embankment of the Sudarsána tank, and the rebuilding of a bridge which was

destroyed by the flood. There are, however, no remains of any ancient city, temples, or ruins of a corresponding age to these inscriptions, and but for their dates the place would have seemed to be unknown before the 10th century. Mr. James Fergusson, in his *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture* (1876, pp. 230-232), thus describes the architectural features of Girnár:—'The principal group of temples at Girnár, some sixteen in number, is situated on a ledge about 600 feet from the summit, and nearly 3000 feet above the level of the sea. The largest and possibly the oldest of these is that of Nemináth. An inscription upon it records that it was repaired in A.D. 1278, and unfortunately a subsequent restorer has laid his heavy hand upon it, so that it is difficult now to realize what its original appearance may have been. The temple stands in a courtyard measuring 195 feet by 130 feet over all. Around the courtyard are arranged 70 cells, with a covered and enclosed passage in front of them, each of which contains a cross-legged seated figure of the Tirthankar, to whom the temple is dedicated (Nemináth), and generally with a bas-relief or picture representing some act in his life. Immediately behind the temple of Nemináth is a triple one, erected by the brothers Tejpála and Vastupála, who also erected one of the principal temples in ABU.'

Gírwa.—River of Nepál and Oudh; a branch of the KAURIALA, leaving that stream on its eastern bank a mile below the point where it emerges through a gorge in the Himálayas known as Shísha-páni or 'Crystal waters.' Some years ago, the Gírwa was a mere water-course, but its volume has gradually increased till it is now considerably larger than the parent stream. Both are rapid rivers; their beds covered with large pebbles, often a foot in diameter, particularly at the fords where they are broad and shallow, enabling elephants to cross generally without difficulty. Both streams are about 400 yards broad, and from 3 to 4 feet deep; they are unfordable by men, except at one or two places. The Gírwa in particular is a beautiful stream, its banks being covered with dense *sál*, with the mountains showing over the tree-tops. In many places the river has worn for itself large clearings amid the jungle, several miles broad, through which the water passes in several clear channels. The islands thus formed are generally covered with *shishám* trees and thickets of willow. Diagonally across the stream in its upper course extend ridges of *kankar* or limestone, forming rapids, and causing a complete obstruction to navigation. In its lower course, the Gírwa enters Bahráich District, and finally reunites with the Kauriála a few miles below Bharthapur. The stream is navigable by large boats up to Dhanaura, just beyond British territory. The waters of the Kauriála and Gírwa, afterwards swelled by the SARJU and CHAUKA, finally become the GOGRA, or great river of Oudh.

Girwán.—South-westerly *tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western

Provinces; consisting of hilly eminences sloping down into an elevated plain, with detached granite rocks. Area, 308 square miles, of which 170 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 78,848; land revenue, £15,885; total Government revenue, £16,231; rental paid by cultivators, £26,693; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 7⅝d.

Gna-putan.—Township and town, British Burma.—*See* NGA-PUTAN.

Gna-thaing-khyoung.—*See* NGA-THAING-KHYOUNG.

Gnyoung-Beng.—Revenue circle, between the Pegu and Tsittoung rivers, in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The country in the west is undulating and cultivated with rice. In 1876, the population was 8339; the gross revenue, £8848.

Gnyoung-beng-hla.—Revenue circle, with an area of 8 square miles, in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. The principal manufacture is salt. In 1876, the population was 1650; the gross revenue, £442.

Gnyoung-beng-tha.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The surface of the country is undulating, and the hillsides are covered with fruit and vegetable gardens. The villages are all on the bank of the Irawadi, and are inhabited by cultivators and fishermen. In 1876-77, the land revenue was £91, and the capitation tax, £114.

Gnyoung-beng-tha.—Revenue circle on the right bank of the Irawadi, in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The land is well cultivated with rice, and protected from inundation by an embankment. The population in 1876 was 4467; the gross revenue, £1292.

Gnyoung-beng-tshiep.—Revenue circle, 6 square miles in extent, on the left bank of the Irawadi, in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The population in 1876-77 numbered 4115, almost all Burmese; the gross revenue was £1024. Before the annexation of Pegu, Gnyoung-beng-tshiep was an independent jurisdiction under a Myo-thúgyí, under whom were five Thúgyíships. The last Myo-thúgyí took office under the English as an extra-Assistant Commissioner.

Gnyoung-beng-tshiep.—Revenue circle, east of Maulmain, at the junction of the Gyaing and Attaran rivers, and on the right bank of the former, in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. This circle is noted for its manufacture of earthen pots for salt-boiling, etc. In 1876-77, the population was 2999; the land revenue, £424; and the capitation tax, £323.

Gnyoung-dún (or *Yandoon*).—Town 60 miles north-west of Rangoon, at the junction of the Pan-hlaing or Gnyoung-dún creek with the Irawadi, in Thonkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It is the seat of a large transit trade between the upper part of the Irawadi valley and Rangoon. The principal imports are wheat,

gram, beans, pickled tea, oil, onions, silk. The principal exports are rice (husked and unhusked), piece-goods, crockery, earthenware, tobacco, and betel-nuts. Small steamers occasionally run between this town and Rangoon, making the trip, with a favourable tide, in one day.

Gnyoung-dún.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, Thonkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. In 1876-77, the population was 12,354, inclusive of Gnyoung-dún town; the gross revenue, £2966.

Gnyoung-khyoung.—Revenue circle in Thonkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It lies on the right bank of the Irawadi; and until this river was embanked, the southern portions of the circle were uncultivable, owing to periodical inundations. In 1876-77, the population was 10,212; the gross revenue, £2761.

Gnyoung-le-beng. — Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Its area is 70 square miles. The population in 1876-77 was 5284, chiefly Talaing; the gross revenue was £1448.

Gnyoung-rwa-gyí. — Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. There are extensive rice plains in the centre. The population in 1876-77 was 4981; the gross revenue, £1184.

Gnyoung-rwa-ngay.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It extends eastward from the Arakan Yomas, being in that portion mountainous and covered with tree forest; the tract to the east consists of extensive rice-fields. The population in 1876-77 was 2556; the gross revenue, £394.

Gnyoung-tsa-re.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The surface of the country is level, except towards the east; in the centre and south-west portion, rice is extensively cultivated. During the rains, a tract of country in the south is entirely separated from the rest by the Dún-kúla water-course, which joins the Irawadi just below Gnyoung-tsa-re. In 1876-77, the population was 5961; the gross revenue, £1246.

Goa.—Portuguese settlement on the Malabar or western coast of India, lying between 14° 53′ and 15° 48′ N. lat., and between 73° 43′ and 74° 24′ E. long., about 250 miles south-south-east from Bombay. Bounded on the north by the river Tirakul or Auraundem, separating it from Sáwant Wári State; on the east by the range of the Western Gháts; on the south by Kanara District; and on the west by the Arabian Sea. Extreme length from north to south, 62 miles; greatest breadth from east to west, 40 miles. Total area, 1062 square miles; population (1876), 392,234.

Goa forms a patch of foreign territory on the coast of the Bombay coast, and is surrounded on all sides, except to the seaward, by British Districts. It was not practicable to extend to this settlement the

minute statistical survey which was carried out in British territory, and a personal visit disclosed the impossibility of adhering to the same arrangement. The following account was kindly drawn up for the *Imperial Gazetteer* by Dr. Jose Nicolau da Fonseca, President of the Sociedade dos Amigos das Letras, from official sources in Goa; it is now printed (as requested) with as few modifications as possible, although in a much condensed form, and with some historical amplifications.

Physical Aspects.—Goa is a hilly country, especially that portion which was most recently acquired, known as the Novas Conquistas (new conquests). Its distinguishing feature is the Sahyadri Mountains, which, after skirting a considerable portion of the north-eastern and south-eastern boundaries, branch off westwards across the territory into numerous spurs and ridges. Of the isolated peaks with which these ranges of mountains are studded, the most conspicuous are, on the north—Sonságar, 3827 feet above sea level; Catlanchimauli, 3633 feet; Vaguerim, 3500 feet; Morlemchogor, 3400 feet, all in the Satári *mahál* or Province; on the east and west—Sidnato at Ponda, Chandarnate at Chandrawadi, Consid at Astragar, and Dudeagar at Embarbákam.

The territory is intersected by numerous rivers, which are generally navigable. Beginning on the north, the eight principal rivers are—(1) The Tirakul or Araundem, so called from the fortress of that name guarding its estuary; has its source in the Western Gháts, in the Sáwant Wári State, flows south-west for 14½ miles, and, after forming the northern boundary of the Province of Pernem, and also of the territory of Goa, discharges its waters into the Arabian Sea: (2) the Cháporá or Colvalle, 18 miles long, rises at Rám Ghát, and, after separating the Provinces of Bárdes, Bicholim, and Sanquelim from Pernem, takes a zigzag direction to the south-west through the villages of Salem, Revora, Colvalle, and empties itself into the sea close to the village of Cháporá: (3) the Bága, only 1 mile long, rises in Bárdes, and passes a redoubt of the same name: (4) the Sinquerim, 3½ miles long, also rises in Bárdes close to the village of Pilerne, and, after describing almost a right angle, westwards and southwards, and forming the peninsula of Aguada, falls into the bay of the same name: (5) the Mandavi, 38½ miles in length, is the most important stream in the territory, both the ancient and modern metropolis being situated on its banks; it rises at Parvar Ghát in the Province of Satari, first runs north-west of Ponda, and then south-west of Bicholim and Bárdes, and, after forming several islands and passing Panjím or New Goa, discharges its waters into the Bay of Aguada; its principal offshoots pass the villages of Mapuca, Tivim, and Assonora, watering the Provinces of Bicholim, Sanquelim, and Zambaulim, and are locally known by those names: (6) the Juari, 39 miles in length, rises at the foot of

Digny Ghát in the Province of Embarbákam, runs northwards, separating Salsette from Ponda, and falls into the Bay of Mormugao; like the Mandavi, it has numerous offshoots, one of which joins the former river between Marcaim and Sao Lourenço after forming the island of Tissuadi: (7) the Sál, 15 miles long, runs close to the town of Margao, and discharges itself into the sea near the fort of Betul: (8) the Talpona, 7 miles long, rises at Ambughát in the Province of Astragar, and, running westwards through the Province of Canacona, falls into the sea near the small fort of Talpona. The boats by which these rivers are navigated are called *tonas*, and the ferries across them are designated *passa-gens*.

The territory of Goa possesses a fine harbour, formed by the promontories of Bárdes and Salsette. Half-way between these extremities projects the *cabo* (cape) from the island of Goa, dividing the harbour into two anchorages, known as Alguada and Mormugao. Both are capable of safely accommodating the largest shipping from September to May. Alguada is virtually closed to navigation during the south-west monsoon, owing to the high winds and sea, and the formation of sandbanks in the estuary of the Mandovi at that period; but Mormugao is accessible at all times. A consequence of the intersection of numerous rivers, is the formation of many islands, of which the chief number 18.

The rainfall for the three years ending 1875, as registered by the Meteorological Department, averaged 100·22 inches. The prevailing diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers, diarrhœa, and dysentery.

Laterite is the stone most abundant throughout the territory. Iron is found at Bága, Satari, Pernem, and especially in the Provinces of Zambáulim. The geological resources of Goa have not yet been scientifically explored.

Stately forests are found in the Novas Conquistas. The reserve and other forests scattered over an area of 30,000 *hectares*, or 74,133 acres, have an aggregate value, according to the Report of the Forest Committee of 1871, of £700,000. The wasteful practice of *kumri* or nomadic cultivation, till lately prevalent, has denuded them of valuable trees. More attention is now paid to this branch of public administration, which is entrusted to a special department. In 1874, the forest revenue amounted to £1040, 7s. 6d., and the expenditure to £429, 16s.

Population.—The population of Goa Proper, in 1800, *i.e.* the Velhas without the Novas Conquistas, was calculated at 178,478; comprising 91,436 males and 87,042 females. The whole population of the Velhas (old), and Novas (new) Conquistas, according to the Census of 1851, was 363,788; showing a density of 342·54 to the square mile, being an increase of 1044 over that of 1848, when the

aggregate was returned at 362,744. By the enumeration of 1851, the population was classified under the following heads:—1. Sex.—Males, 180,240; females, 183,548. 2. Age.—Males and females from birth to five years of age, 52,387; from five to fifteen, 73,633; from fifteen to twenty-five, 85,895; from twenty-five to fifty, 104,856; from fifty to a hundred, 47,006; above a hundred, 11. 3. Races.—(A) European males and females and their descendants, 1851; (B) Asiatic males and females, 361,241; (C) African males and females and their descendants, 696. 4. Social Condition.—Married males, 81,522; married females, 81,682; widowers, 16,753; widows, 35,202; unmarried males, 81,965; unmarried females, 66,664. 5. Religion.—Christians, 232,189; Hindus, 128,824; Muhammadans, 2775.

The population of Goa in 1876-77, as gathered from the statistics published in the *Boletim do Governo*, is given on p. 378.

The total population of Goa in 1876-77, according to the statement on p. 378, was therefore 392,234, showing a density of 369·335 persons to the square mile.

The inhabitants are divided into three classes—(1) Europeans, (2) the descendants of Europeans, and (3) Natives. The last class may be again subdivided into Christians and Pagans. The native Christians, who constitute about two-thirds of the total population, are the descendants of Hindus converted to Christianity on the subjugation of the country by the Portuguese, and can still trace the caste to which they originally belonged. The predominating caste among the Pagans is that of Shenvis, or Saraswati Bráhmans. Chitpáwans and Karádás are also to be found, as well as the low or depressed castes, such as Mahárs, Chambárs, etc., who are generally to be distinguished by their darker colour. The few Musalmáns are as a class in a poor condition. The males among native Christians for the most part adopt European costumes, while the females still wear the indigenous *sárí*. The ordinary expenses of a middle-class family seldom exceed £3 a month. All classes of the people, except Europeans, use the Konkani language, with some admixture of Portuguese words. But the official language is Portuguese, which is commonly spoken in the capital and the principal towns, as well as by all educated persons. French is understood by some, and English chiefly by those who have resided for a long time in British territories.

The majority of the population profess the Roman Catholic religion, and are subject in spiritual matters to an Archbishop, who has the title of the Primate of the East, and exercises jurisdiction over the Catholics of all the Portuguese colonies in the East, and of a great portion of British India. His nomination rests with the King of Portugal, subject to confirmation by the Pope. There are altogether

[*Sentence continued on page 379.*

POPULATION OF THE PORTUGUESE SETTLEMENT OF GOA IN 1876-77.

	District.	Males.					Females.					Grand Total.
		Under 14 years.	Unmarried above 14 years.	Married.	Widowers.	Total.	Under 14 years.	Unmarried above 14 years.	Married.	Widows.	Total.	
Velhas Conquistas.	Ilhas, ...	5,811	4,511	11,040	949	22,311	5,390	3,696	11,059	3,651	23,796	46,107
	Bárdes, ...	14,165	9,086	23,242	3,068	49,561	12,849	4,978	23,541	10,898	52,266	101,827
	Salsette, . . .	15,688	15,251	22,212	3,332	56,483	15,944	11,959	22,347	10,073	60,323	116,806
Novas Conquistas.	1st Division, . . .	4,504	1,360	6,505	409	12,778	3,639	306	6,402	2,038	12,385	25,163
	2d do., . . .	4,428	3,228	7,626	1,026	16,308	3,294	1,774	7,923	2,279	15,270	31,578
	3d do., . . .	4,229	3,197	9,974	1,093	18,493	2,856	1,068	9,535	2,435	15,894	34,387
	4th do., . . .	4,730	3,169	9,279	1,478	18,656	4,129	1,304	9,286	2,991	17,710	36,366
	Total, .	53,555	39,802	89,878	11,355	194,590	48,101	25,085	90,093	34,365	197,644	392,234

Sentence continued from page 377.]
96 Christian churches in Goa, mostly built by the Jesuits and the Franciscans prior to the extinction of the religious orders in Portuguese territory. The chief of these churches is the cathedral or metropolitan church, called the *Se Primacial de Goa*. The religious orders have been abolished in Portuguese India, and the churches are under the charge of secular priests, all of whom are natives of Goa. In 1873-74, the State contributed £4955, 11s. towards the maintenance of the ecclesiastical establishment. The Catholics of Goa are very regular in the fulfilment of religious duties, and celebrate the chief festivals sanctioned by the Catholic Church with much devotion and pomp. The Hindus and Muhammadans enjoy perfect liberty in religious matters, and have their own places of worship. The chief Hindu temples are those of Mangesh, Málshá, Sántádurgá, Kapleshwar, Nágesh, and Ramnáth, all of which are situated in the Novas Conquistas.

At the conquest of Goa by Alfonso de Albuquerque in A.D. 1510, the village communities, among which the inhabitants were distributed, were found to be in the enjoyment of certain immunities from taxation and other privileges. Albuquerque carefully maintained the constitution of these village communities, and avoided all appearance of fresh taxation. The same policy was followed by his successors; and in 1526, a register was compiled, called '*Foral dos usas e Costumes*,' containing the peculiar usage and customs of the communities, and the privileges enjoyed by them from time immemorial. This register served as a guide-book to subsequent administrators. But in time the communities were burdened with additional imposts, and placed under certain restrictions. At present they are under the supervision of Government, which appoints in each District (*conselho*) of the Velhas Conquistas an officer called Administrador das Communidades, to watch rigidly over their proceedings. They are precluded from spending even the smallest sum without Government sanction, and have to pay certain contributions to the parish churches and for the construction and repair of roads, the establishment of schools, etc. The staff of village servants is not the same in all parts, but it usually comprises the following members:—The tax-collector (*sacador*), the clerk (*escrivao*), the carpenter (*carpinteiro*), the barber (*barbeiro*), the shoemaker (*alparqueiro*), the washerman (*mainato*), the crier (*parpoti*), and the *mahár* (*faraz*). There is, however, no village head-man. On questions affecting the interests of a whole village, a sort of a *pancháyat* or council is held, composed of one or more members of each clan (*vangor*), and the decisions are determined by the majority of votes. In the Velhas Conquistas, a great portion of the land is held by the village communities, which, after paying the rent and other Government taxes,

divide the annual produce amongst themselves; while in the Novas Conquistas the lands are distributed among the *vangors*, who cultivate them and enjoy their net produce. The total number of village communities is 421. The aggregate revenue of the villages comprehended in the Velhas Conquistas amounted in 1872 to £77,111, 16s., against an expenditure of £26,436, 6s. 8d.

Agriculture.—The entire territory of Goa contains 915,369 acres, of which 234,754 acres are stated to be under cultivation, thus distributed among the different crops:—Rice, 122,566 acres; other cereals, vegetables, etc., 77,076; cocoa-nut trees, 33,194; areca palms, 565; and fruit trees the remainder. The soil is chiefly argillaceous, but also contains light sand and more or less of decayed vegetable matter. In many parts it is full of stone and gravel. Its fertility varies according to quality and situation in reference to the supply of water. Manure, consisting of ashes, fish, and dung, is largely employed. As a rule, the Velhas Conquistas are better cultivated than the Novas Conquistas. In both these divisions of the Goa territory a holding of 15 or 16 acres would be considered a good-sized farm, though the majority of holdings are of smaller extent.

The staple produce of the country is rice (Oryza sativa), of which there are two harvests—(1) the winter crop, called *sorodio*, and (2) the summer crop or *vangana*, raised by means of artificial irrigation from the rain-water accumulated in reservoirs, ponds, and wells. For the *sorodio* crop, the field is ploughed before the commencement of the monsoon, the seed scattered in May or June, and the crop harvested in September; while as regards the *vangana*, the ploughing operations begin in October, the sowing in November, and the harvesting in February. Rice is cultivated in low lands (*cazana* or *cantor*) situated near the banks of rivers, slopes of hills (*molloy*), stiff grounds (*dulpan* or *dulip*), and sandy soils (*quero*). The ratio of the produce to the seed is roughly estimated as follows:—Near the banks of rivers, fifteenfold; in dry and stiff soils, sixfold; and in other places, eightfold. The quantity of rice produced is barely sufficient to meet the local demand for two-thirds of the year. Next to rice, the culture of cocoa-nut trees (Cocos nucifera) is deemed most important, from the variety of uses to which the products are applied. They grow in luxuriant groves on all lands not hilly or serviceable for the production of rice, and along the sea-coast. Areca palm (Areca catechu) is chiefly cultivated in the Novas Conquistas on lands irrigated from rivulets. Hilly places and inferior soils are set apart for the cultivation of such cereals as *nachinim* (Dolichos biflora), *urid* (Phaseolus max), *culita* (Dolichos uniflorus), *orio* (Panicum italicum), *mug* (Phaseolus radiatus), *tori* (Cytisus cajan). Of fruit-trees the most important are mango (Mangifera indica), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), cashew (Anacardium

occidentale). Among the various kinds of vegetables are potato (Convolvulus batata), radishes (Raphanus sativus), yams (Dioscorea sativa), melons (Cucumis melo), cucumber (Cucumis sativus), bendas (Abelmoschus esculentus), etc. Besides these—chilies (Capsicum frutescens), ginger (Zingiber officinale), turmeric (Curcuma longa), onion (Allium cepa), and certain vegetables of daily consumption are extensively cultivated in some villages. In the Province of Satári a party of enterprising foreigners rented some years ago from Government certain plots of ground for coffee plantations. Several experiments were tried, but the result did not prove encouraging.

Goa is seldom subject to great floods, though some of its Provinces occasionally suffer from partial inundations during heavy rains. In times of drought, the agricultural classes sustain heavy loss, but the people at large are supplied, though at great cost, with rice from British territories. It is only when a general famine occurs beyond the frontier that signs of extreme distress are visible amongst the inhabitants of Goa. Formerly the country was frequently subject to famine. The years 1553, 1570, and 1682 are said to have been seasons of great scarcity. In subsequent years, the constant incursions of the Marhattás occasioned much distress.

The condition of the agricultural classes in the Velhas Conquistas has of late improved, owing partly to the general rise in prices of all kinds of agricultural produce, and partly to the current of emigration to British territories. In the Novas Conquistas, however, the cultivators are said to have been reduced to great want and misery through the oppression of the landowners.

Commerce and Manufactures.—In the days of its glory, Goa was the chief entrepôt of commerce between the East and West. But with the downfall of the Portuguese Empire, it lost its commercial importance, and its trade has now dwindled into insignificance. Few manufacturing industries of any importance exist, but the country is not devoid of skilful artisans, such as goldsmiths, carpenters, blacksmiths, shoemakers, etc. Some of the articles produced are disposed of privately, while others are exposed for sale at the annual and weekly fairs held in various places. The principal exports are—cocoa-nuts, betel-nuts, mangoes, water-melons, jack, and other fruits; cinnamon, pepper, salt fish, gum, coir-work, firewood, fowls, and salt. Of these the last forms one of the principal sources of profit, the numerous salt-pans that exist in the country yielding a large quantity of salt over and above the local demand. The chief articles imported are—rice, cloth, refined sugar, wines, tobacco, glass-ware, hardware, and other miscellaneous goods. The value of the imports largely exceeds that of the exports, thus causing a drain of money which would certainly have materially affected the financial condition of Goa, had not a stream of coin flowed con-

stantly into the country from the savings of those of its inhabitants who reside temporarily in British territory. In 1874, the customs revenue amounted to £21,388, 18s. The total number of vessels of every kind that entered the port of Goa in the same year was 1075, with 97,900 tons of cargo, while the number of those that left was 2084, with 119,756 tons.

There is at present (1877) no railway in Goa, but negotiations are pending with the British Government for the construction of a line in connection with the main system of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Several new roads have recently been made, and others are in course of construction. According to the report of the Committee of Engineers, published in 1870, there were in that year 31 roads, complete and incomplete; of these the chief runs northwards from Verem, opposite Panjim, through the villages of Pilerne, Saligao, Parramaprica, and Assonora, meeting at Sankarwalle the road constructed in British territory.

There are no banking establishments or professional money-lenders in the country; but in cases of necessity, money can be borrowed from wealthy proprietors or religious confraternities at 5 per cent. In Districts inhabited by Hindus, however, the current rate of interest is about 10 per cent. Landowners not unfrequently advance petty sums, or their equivalent in kind, without interest, to such of the cultivators or labourers as are their dependants, or live in their *oarts* (palmares), deducting the debt by monthly instalments from the wages due. In the Novas Conquistas, the rate of interest charged for an advance of grain is generally half as much as the value of the advance.

Owing to the want of labourers, and the comparative increase in the price of grain, wages have of late risen considerably. Formerly they varied from 2d. to 3d. a day, but at present a male labourer earns as much as 6d., and a female 2½d. Agricultural labourers generally receive their wages in kind, either daily or weekly. Good masons and carpenters are paid at the rate of 1s. per diem; and male servants at about 4s. per month besides food. Wherever female servants are employed, they, as a rule, receive no fixed wages, but it is usual to give them periodically some suits of clothes, and jewels on the occasion of marriage. The average price of a cow is about £1; of a pair of oxen, £5; of a pair of buffaloes, £5; of a pig, £1; of a score of fowls, 10s.; and of a score of ducks, £1. In 1874-75, rice sold at 26 lbs. per rupee (2s.); *urid*, at 30 lbs.; *culita*, at 50 lbs.

Administration.—Previous to 1871, Goa possessed a comparatively large Native army, but owing to the rebellion which broke out in that year, it was disbanded, and a battalion composed wholly of Europeans was obtained from Portugal. The force now consists of 313 men of all ranks. The entire strength of the police is 919 men. The total expenditure on the public force was in 1874, £49,687, 6s.

There is at present no naval force at Goa; but in the year 1874-75, the Settlement contributed a sum of £9815, 15s. towards the maintenance of the Portuguese navy.

There is one telegraph office in Goa, at Panjím, maintained jointly by the British and Portuguese Governments, the latter contributing yearly the sum of £160, besides paying £3 monthly as house rent. During the year 1874-75, the total number of messages sent was 1294, and those received, 1869. The receipts amounted to £198, 3s. 9d., and the expenditure to £256, 11s. 6¼d. The headquarters of the post office are also at Panjím, with branches at Margao, Mapuça, Ponda, Bicholim, Chinchinim, and Pernem. Letters sent from Goa to any part of British India, or *vice versa*, bear the postage stamps issued by both Governments. The total postal receipts in 1874-75 were £1815, 6s.

There are two hospitals—one for military men; and the other for the poor and destitute, called 'Hospital da Santa Caza de Misericordia' (Hospital of the Holy House of Mercy). In the year 1875, the latter contained 520 inmates, of whom 226 were females. The most important charitable institutions are—the Santa Caza de Misericordia (Holy House of Mercy), at Chimbel; Sociedade de Caridade (Charitable Society), at Panjim; Hospicio de Sagrodo Coraçao de Maria (Asylum of the Sacred Heart of Mary), at Margao; and Asylo de Nossa Senhora de Milagres (Asylum of our Lady of Miracles), at Mapuça. The first is coeval with the conquest of Goa by the Portuguese, and maintains the hospital alluded to above and two establishments for the reformation and education of females. In 1874, these two houses contained a total of 48 inmates.

Of late years, education has made considerable progress in Goa. In 1869-70, there were 137 lower schools, of which 52 were public and 85 private, with 6027 pupils of both sexes; 29 higher schools, of which 21 were public and 8 private, including 1 national lyceum or college, with 2433 pupils; 1 medical school, with 60 pupils; 1 school of chemistry, with 48 pupils; 1 mathematical and military school, with 137 pupils; 1 seminary for priests, with 92 pupils. Besides these, there are 3 public schools for girls. Since 1870, the military school has been closed, and a college for practical sciences, called Instituto Professional, established in its place. Besides the Government Gazette, called *Boletim do Governo*, there are five weekly periodicals—viz. (1) *A' Gazeta de Bárdes*, (2) *A' India Portuguesa*, (3) *A' Nova Goa*, (4) *A' Patria*, and (5) *O' Ultramar*, all edited in the Portuguese language by natives. In addition, there is a Portuguese religious paper called *A' Cruz*, and a Marathí newspaper called *Desha Sudhárnechá*. Of the four literary associations established in the country, the most important is the Instituto Vasco da Gama.

The total revenue in 1873-74 was £108,148, 10s., and th penditure, £107,145, 18s. The sources of revenue are—tithes per cent. on rice, cocoa-nuts, and salt, customs and postal dues and stamp duties, tobacco licences, taxes on liquor-shops, etc.

Goa is regarded as an integral portion of the Portuguese Em and, with Damán and Diu, forms, for administrative purposes, Province subject to a Governor-General, who is appointed directl the King of Portugual, and holds his office for five years. Besides civil functions, he is invested with the supreme military authorit the Province. His personal staff consists of two aides-de-camp, a of a secretary styled the Chief Secretary of the Governor-General Portuguese India, and likewise appointed by the king. Though t chief executive functionary, the Governor-General cannot, except cases of emergency, impose new taxes, or abolish the existing one contract loans, create new appointments, or reduce the old one retrench the salaries attached to them, or generally incur any expense not sanctioned by law; nor can he, under any circumstances wha ever, leave the Province without the special permission of the Home Government. In the administration of the Province he is aided by a council composed of the Chief Secretary, the Archbishop of Goa, or, in his absence, the chief ecclesiastical authority exercising his functions, the Judges of the High Court, the two highest military officers in Goa, the Attorney-General, the Secretary of the Junta de Fazenda Publica (council of public revenue), the Health Officer, and the President of the Municipal Chamber or Corporation of the Capital (camara municipal de capital). As a rule, all the members give their opinions, and vote in every matter on which they are consulted by the Governor-General. There are also three other Juntas or councils, called the Junta Geral da Provincia (general council of the Province), the Junta da Fazenda Publica (council of public revenue), and the Conselho de Provincia (the council of the Province). The first of these is composed of the Chief Secretary, the Archbishop or his substitute, the Attorney-General, the Secretary of the Junta da Fazenda Publica, the Director of Public Works, the Health Officer, a Professor of the Medico-Surgical College, a Professor of the Instituto Professional, a Professor of the Lyceum, a Professor of the Normal School, and a representative from each of the municipal corporations of the Province. This Junta discusses and decides all questions relating to public works, and the expenses necessary for their execution, the preservation of public health, the establishment of schools, the alteration of custom duties, etc. The Governor-General is empowered to suspend the operation of any resolution passed by this Junta, pending a reference to the Home Government. The second council consists of the Governor-General as President, the Attorney-General, the Secretary of

the same council, and the Accountant-General. This Junta exercises a direct and active control over the public revenues, making the requisite provisions for their proper collection and expenditure; and no public expense can be made without its sanction. The third council is altogether of inferior importance.

In addition to the above machinery of administration, there are subordinate agencies for the local government of the different Districts. In connection with these agencies, the entire territory of Goa is divided into two tracts, known as the Velhas and Novas Conquistas (old and new conquests). The former tract is subdivided into three Districts (conselhos)—viz. the Ilhas, Salsette, and Bárdes—and each of these again into parishes, of which there are 96 in all. Every District has a municipal corporation, and is placed under the charge of a functionary, called Administrador do Conselho. This officer is appointed by the Governor-General, and is entrusted with duties of an administrative character, besides those connected with the public safety and health. Every parish has likewise a minor council, called Junta da Parochia, presided over by a magistrate, called Regedor, whose duties are to inspect and direct the police establishments of the parish, keep a strict surveillance over liquor-shops, gaming-houses, etc., open wills and testaments, and report generally every important occurrence to the Administrador. Similarly in each of the four divisions into which the Novas Conquistas are subdivided, there is an officer called Administrador Fiscal, whose duties are almost identical with those of the Administrador do Conselho. The functions of a Regedor are here exercised by a village Kulkarni. Of the above named four divisions, the first consists of Pernem, the second of Sanquelim or Satari and Bicholim; the third of Ponda and Embarbacem; and the fourth of Astragan, Bally, Chandorowadi, Cacora, and Canacona with Cabo de Ráma. Each of the Subdivisions of the Velhas and Novas Conquistas is also known by the name of Province. The offices of Governor, Chief Secretary, Attorney-General, and some other important ones are almost invariably filled by Europeans; while those of Administrador do Conselho and Regedor are held by natives. As stated above, there are three municipalities in the Velhas Conquistas, the chief being that of the Ilhas. The municipal receipts in 1874-75 amounted to £1232, 15s.

Goa with its dependencies in India, viz. Damán and Diu, and with Mozambique, Macao, and Timor, constitutes, for judicial purposes, but one District. This judicial District is divided into Comarcas, which are subdivided into Julgados, and these again into Tregulsias or parishes. Each parish is superintended by a Justice of the Peace, whose appointment is honorary. It is the duty of this functionary to arbitrate between litigants, in civil suits, except those affecting the interests of minors, and those relating to mortmain; to institute pre-

liminary inquiries into criminal matters previous to their submission for trial; to try municipal offences, and decide petty suits not exceeding in amount or value 2500 *reis* (12s.). Against his decision an appeal lies to the court of a judge of higher jurisdiction called Juiz Ordinario. In every Julgado there is a Juiz Ordinario, with an establishment consisting of a sub-delegate of the Attorney-General, two clerks, two or more bailiffs, and a translator or interpreter. All these officials are paid by Government, and are besides entitled to fees, except the clerks, who receive fees only. A Juiz Ordinario holds his sittings twice a week, for the purpose of deciding civil and criminal cases within his jurisdiction. The former are chiefly connected with disputes concerning landed property not exceeding the value of £2, or moveable property of not more than £6. The latter relate to offences for which no higher punishment can be awarded than a fine of 15s., or three days' rigorous imprisonment. The Juiz de Direito holds the next grade, in charge of a Comarca, with a staff composed of a delegate of the Attorney-General, three clerks, one interpreter and translator, an accountant, four or five bailiffs, all of whom, except the clerks and accountant receive, in addition to certain fees, fixed salaries. A judge of this class exercises ordinary and extraordinary jurisdiction in matters both civil and criminal. He is required to go on circuit annually to the Julgados, where he hears complaints against subordinate functionaries, examines their proceedings and registers, and sometimes tries those suits within his jurisdiction which may not have been submitted to his tribunal by the ordinary judges. His decision in suits relating to landed property exceeding in value £10, and moveable property above £15, are subject to appeal to the High Court of Goa. Within the limits of the Julgado, where the seat of his tribunal is fixed, this officer exercises the functions of a judge of ordinary jurisdiction as well as those of a District judge. The supervision of all the above judges is entrusted to a High Court (Tribunal da Relaçao), whose seat is in Nova Goa (new Goa), in consequence of which it is sometimes called Relaçao de Nova Goa. This court consists of a Chief Justice (Presidente), and 3 puisne judges, with a staff consisting of an Attorney-General, an assistant, a registrar, 2 assistant registrars, an accountant, and 2 bailiffs, all drawing salaries from the public treasury besides certain perquisites. The High Court has jurisdiction, both ordinary and extraordinary, in all cases, whether civil or criminal, and is invested with appellate powers. Its decisions are final in all suits except those relating to immoveable property exceeding in value £150, and moveable property above £250, in which an appeal lies to the Supreme Tribunal of Portugal. Besides the High Court, there are in Goa 3 courts of the Juiz de Direito, established in the three Comarcas of the Ilhas, Bardez, and Salsette. The Ilhas are divided into two Julgados—(1) Panjím, and (2) Ponda.

Bardez into four — (1) Mapuça, the chief town of the Comarca, (2) Calangute, (3) Pernem, (4) Bicholim. Salsette into three—(1) Margao, (2) Chinchinim, and (3) Quepem. The offices of the judges of the High Court, and of District judges, are filled by Europeans, and those of the judges of Julgados by natives. The total sum spent on judicial administration in 1873-74 amounted to £5551, 16s. The following are the statistics of the High Court in 1874:—Civil judgments, 167; criminal judgments, 164; total, 331.

History. — Certain inscriptions lately deciphered corroborate the evidence of the *Puránás* that Goa was in ancient times known under the various names of Gomanchala, Gomant, Goapuri, Gopakapur, and Gopa-Kapatanua; while recent investigations prove its identity with the Sindabur of Arab writers. The accounts handed down from antiquity teem with legendary tales, on which little reliance can be placed. In the Sahyadri Khanda of the *Skanda Puráná*, it is recorded that at an early period of time the Aryans settled in Goa, having been brought by Parasuráma from Trihotrapur or Mithila, the modern Tirhut. Some of the inscriptions referred to above show that it afterwards passed under the sway of the Kadambas or Banawasi, whose first king, Trilochana Kadamba, is supposed to have flourished in Kaliyug 3220, or about A.D. 109-110. This dynasty continued to rule until 1312, when Goa fell for the first time into the hands of the Muhammadans, under Malik Tubliga. They were, however, compelled to evacuate it in 1370, having been defeated by Vydyáranya Mádhawa, the Prime Minister of Harihara of Vijáyanagar, under whose successors Goa remained for about 100 years. In 1449, it was conquered by Muhammad Gawan, the general of Muhammad II., the 13th Báhmaní King of the Deccan (Dakhin), and incorporated into the dominions of that sovereign. After the downfall of this house, Goa became subject to the Adil Sháhí dynasty reigning at Bijápur, about the time that Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut in 1498. This family retained possession until the 17th February 1510, when Goa was captured by Alfonso de Albuquerque. The Portuguese fleet, consisting of 20 sail of the line, with a few small vessels and 1200 fighting men, hove in sight of the harbour. A holy mendicant or *jogi* had lately foretold its conquest by a foreign people from a distant land, and the disheartened citizens rendered up the town to the strangers.

Eight leading men presented the keys of the gates to Albuquerque on their knees, together with a large banner which was usually unfurled on State occasions. Mounted on a richly caparisoned steed, Albuquerque entered the city in a triumphal procession, drums beating, trumpets sounding, with the Portuguese banners carried by the flower of the Lisbon nobility and clergymen at the head, amidst the acclamations of an immense multitude, who showered upon the conqueror filigree

flowers of silver and gold. Albuquerque behaved well to the inhabitants, but was shortly afterwards expelled by the Bijápur King.

Yusaf Adil Sháh, King of Bijápur, marched against the place with a considerable force, and after several sanguinary contests, retook it from the Portuguese on the 15th August of the same year. Reinforced, however, by the large armament which opportunely arrived from Portugal about this time, Albuquerque hastened back to Goa with his fleet, and conquered it a second time on the 25th of November. With 28 ships, carrying 1700 men, he forced his way into the town after a bloody assault, in which 2000 Musalmáns fell. For three days the miserable citizens were given over as a prey to every atrocity. The fifth part of the plunder, reserved for the Portuguese Crown, amounted to £20,000. Albuquerque promptly occupied himself in fortifying the place, embellishing the city, and establishing the Portuguese rule on a firm basis.

From this time Goa rapidly rose in importance, and eventually became the metropolis of the Portuguese Empire in the East, which is said to have comprehended an area of about 4000 leagues. In 1543, during the governorship of Martin Alfonso, who came to India together with the celebrated St. Francis Xavier, the two important Provinces or *mahâls* of Salsette and Bárdes were ceded to the Portuguese by Ibráhim Adil Sháh, who, however, not long afterwards, attempted to regain them, but was foiled in his endeavours by the intrepidity of Dom Joao de Castro. To provide against any future invasion on the part of the Muhammadans, the eastern part of the island of Goa was protected by means of a long wall. In 1570, Ali Adil Sháh besieged the city with an army of 100,000 men; but it was so bravely defended by the little garrison under the Viceroy Don Luis de Athaide that the Muhammadan army, greatly thinned in number, retreated precipitately after a tedious siege of ten months' duration. About this period, the Portuguese were alarmed by the appearance on the coast of India of a new enemy. The Dutch, having shaken off the Spanish yoke, assumed a warlike attitude towards the Portuguese, owing to the intimate connection between Portugal and Spain.

The subsequent history of the town has been one of luxury, ostentation, and decay. After bearing a siege by the King of Bijápur, and suffering from a terrible epidemic, Goa reached the summit of its prosperity at the end of the 16th century, during the very years when the English Company was struggling into existence under Elizabeth. 'Goa Dourada,' or Golden Goa, seemed a place of fabulous wealth to the plain merchants who were destined to be the founders of British India. 'Whoever hath seen Goa, need not see Lisbon,' said a proverb of that day. Indeed, if the accounts of travellers are to be trusted, Goa presented a scene of military, ecclesiastical, and commercial magnificence

which has had no parallel in the European capitals of India. The descriptions that have been left of Calcutta in the last and during the first quarter of the present century, leave behind them a feeling of insignificance compared with the accounts of Goa, written nearly three hundred years ago. To find a parallel, we must go to the travellers' tales regarding Agra and Delhi during the zenith of the Mughal prosperity. The brilliant pomp and picturesque display of Goa was due to the fact that it was not only a flourishing harbour, but also the centre of a great military and ecclesiastical power. The Portuguese based their dominion in India on conquest by the sword. They laboured to consolidate it by a proselytizing organization, which throws the missionary efforts of every other European power in India into the shade. The Portuguese in India were destined to prove how rotten was this basis, and how feebly cemented was the superstructure reared upon it. But during the greatness of Goa, it had all the splendours which the church and a powerful military court could cast around it.

After the genius of Albuquerque and the energies of the early viceroys had spent themselves, these armaments constituted a vast idle population in the capital. The work of conquest was over, and it left behind it a gay and wealthy society of conquerors who had nothing to do. Every Portuguese in India, says a traveller, set up as a 'Fidalgo' (*sic*). These gentlemen had to be amused. There were no hotels or inns in the city, but many boarding-houses and gambling saloons. The latter, writes a voyager in the 17th century, were sumptuously furnished, and paid a heavy tax to the Government. People of all classes frequented them, and entertainments were provided for the lookers-on by jugglers, dancing girls, musicians, wrestlers, and native actors or buffoons. 'Those who were inordinately fond of gambling stayed there sometimes for days together, and were provided with board and lodging.'

Such gambling houses were not places for respectable women, and while the male society thronged their saloons, the Portuguese ladies were rigorously shut up at home. The family income was derived from the labour of slaves, and as no 'Fidalgo' (*sic*) could follow a trade or calling without disgrace, so neither could his wife busy herself in domestic affairs without losing her social importance. The society of Goa, therefore, divided itself into two idle populations—an idle population of men in the streets and gambling houses, and an idle population of women in the seclusion of their own homes. This was one of the first results of the intensely military spirit, with its contempt for peaceful forms of industry, on which rested the Portuguese power in India. The ladies of Goa soon obtained an unenviable notoriety in books of travel. Excluded from male society, they spent their time in indolence, quarrelling, and frivolous pursuits. A European *zanána* life grew up, and brought with it some very ugly consequences. A lady valued

herself in her female coterie upon the number and the daring of her intrigues. Almost every traveller who visited Goa during its prime tells the same curious story regarding the rashness with which the Portuguese matrons pursued their amours. Both Pyrard and Linschoten relate, in nearly the same words, how the ladies of Goa were wont to stupefy their husbands with *dhatura*, and then admit their lovers. The perils of such interviews became almost necessary to give a zest to their profligacy, and the Goanese became a byword as the type of an idle, a haughty, and a corrupt society.

Strangers are inclined to laugh at Englishmen for adhering in India to the British costumes devised for a more temperate zone. There can be no doubt that the Dutch in Java have adapted their clothing much better to the climate than we have in Calcutta. But the very rigidity with which English society in India insists upon matters of dress is not without its value. It forms a perpetual check upon the tendency to fall into the slip-shod habits of oriental domestic life. In Goa, these habits were carried to an extreme length. At home, both ladies and gentlemen dressed very much like the natives, except for the large rosaries which they wore round their necks. While untidy and careless in their dress at home, they made an ostentatious display when they stirred abroad. When a gentleman rode out, he was attended by a throng of slaves in gay and fanciful liveries, some holding large umbrellas, others bearing richly inlaid arms; while the horse itself was loaded with gold and silver trappings, the reins studded with precious stones, with jingling silver bells attached, and the stirrups wrought into artistic shapes in gilt silver. The poor followed the example of the rich, and resorted to amusing makeshifts to maintain an air of dignity and grandeur. The gentlemen who lived together in a boarding-house had a few suits of silk clothes between them in common. These they used by turns when they went out, and hired a man to hold an umbrella over them as they strutted through the streets.

Holland, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, began to assert herself in the East. While our own East India Company was struggling into existence during the last years of Elizabeth, the Dutch were preparing to dispute with the Portuguese for the supremacy in the Indian Ocean. In 1603, they blockaded Goa. The attempt proved abortive; but it left behind it a struggle between the two nations which, during the next seventy years, shattered and dismembered the Portuguese power in India. One by one, the Portuguese possessions fell into the hands of the Dutch; their fleets were captured, or driven within the shelter of their forts, and their commerce was swept from the seas. Goa suffered not only from these disasters, but also from a return of the fever which had afflicted the city in the preceding century. It broke out again in 1635, and raged for several years. Towards the end of this visitation, the

Dutch once more blockaded Goa in 1639, but were again compelled to withdraw.

A period of pride and poverty followed, during which the splendour of the previous century was replaced by shabby devices to conceal the decay that had blighted the Portuguese power. In 1648, Tavernier admired the architectural grandeur of Goa, but was struck with the indigence of several Portuguese families whom he had seen in affluence and prosperity during his first visit. He says that many who had six years previously enjoyed an ample income, were now reduced to the necessity of secretly begging alms. 'Yet they did not put aside their vanity. The ladies were particularly observed going in palanquins to seek charitable relief, attended by servants who conveyed their messages to the persons whose assistance they implored.' 'The city,' says Thevenot in 1666, 'is great and full of beautiful churches and convents, and well adorned with palaces. There were few nations in the world so rich as the Portuguese in India; but their vanity is the cause of their ruin.' In 1675, Dr. Fryer described Goa as 'Rome in India'—'looks well at a distance—stands upon seven hills; everywhere colleges, churches, and glorious structures; but many houses disgracing it with their ruins.'

The Portuguese, indeed, were becoming unable to hold their capital even against the native banditti. In 1683, it narrowly escaped falling into the hands of Sambájí at the head of his roving Marhattás, who plundered up to the very gates of the city. All hopes of resistance were abandoned, when a powerful Mughal force suddenly made its appearance from the Gháts, and compelled the Marhattás to come to terms. This unexpected deliverance was ascribed to the miraculous interposition of St. Francis Xavier. Subsequently the Bhonslás from the State of Sáwant Wári invaded the Goa territory; but though at the outset they obtained partial successes, they were eventually defeated by the Portuguese, who conquered from them the islands of Corjuem and Panelem, and destroyed their fortress at Bicholim. To defend the place against future inroads, the Viceroy Vasco Fernandes Cæsar de Minezes (1712-1717) built a fortress on the frontiers of Bardes, and another at Chapora. During the administration of the Count of Sandomil (1732-41), the Portuguese became once more involved in a war with the Marhattás, and lost some of their most important possessions towards the north of Goa. In 1741, the Marhattás invaded the peninsulas of Salsette and Bardes, and threatened the city of Goa itself. At the same time the Bhonslás availed themselves of the opportunity to overrun the Settlement. At that critical period a new Viceroy arrived at Goa, the Marquis of Louriçal, bringing with him from Europe a reinforcement of 12,000 men. With this army he encountered and defeated the Marhattás at Bardes with great slaughter, captured the celebrated

fortress of Ponda and other minor forts, and compelled them to retire from Goa. He then marched against the Bhonslás, and forced them to sue for peace, making their chief, Khem Sáwant, a tributary of the Portuguese. Shortly afterwards, however, the Bhonslás renewed hostilities, but were defeated by the Marquis of Castello-Novo, who conquered Alorna (whence his later title), Tiracol, Neutim, Rarim, Sanquelim, or Satari. In 1750, the Marhattás and Bhonslás jointly attacked the fortress of Neutim, which they closely invested both by sea and land. The Viceroy Marquis of Tavora hastened to the relief of the place with all the available force, and compelled the enemy to raise the siege, after which he turned his arms against the King of Sunda, and captured the fortress of Piro (Sadáshivgar). His successor, Count of Alva, prosecuted successfully for a time the war against the Marhattás, but eventually lost Rarim and Neutim, and was killed at the siege of one of the fortresses which had fallen into the hands of the enemy. About this period, the Court of Lisbon sent peremptory orders to the Viceroy Count of Ega to restore the fortresses of Piro and Ximpem to the King of Sunda, and Bicholim, Sanquelim, and Alorna to Khem Sáwant II. Subsequently, however, the former allowed the Portuguese to possess themselves of Ponda, with the adjacent territory of Zambaulim, Cabo de Ráma, and Canacona, during the time that his dominions were invaded by Haidar Alí. After some years of repose, Khem Sáwant again attempted to disturb the Portuguese; but being defeated, had to surrender to them Bicholim, Sanquelim or Satari, Alorna, and Pernem.

The decay of the capital had become so notorious that the Portuguese Government in Europe determined at a great cost to rebuild it. After a century of fruitless efforts and foolish expenditure, Old Goa still lay in ruins, and the remnants of the population drew themselves together at Panjím or New Goa, at the mouth of the river. The changes in the river itself had contributed to render Old Goa still more unhealthy than of old, and to make the navigation of its channels dangerous even for the comparatively small class of ships which the Portuguese employed. During the 18th century, the decayed settlement, instead of being a centre of military pomp and courtly display, had become a burden on the Home Government, and cost Portugal a considerable sum of money annually. It required a force of 2000 European soldiers to protect it from the Marhattás; the privates receiving a miserable subsistence of rice and fish, and the captains drawing a salary of 6 rupees a month. Such commerce as survived was in the hands of the Jesuits. This fraternity still preserved the traditions, and something of the energy, of the proselytizing era. Captain Hamilton, early in the 18th century, declared that he counted from a neighbouring hill nearly eighty churches and convents. He states the number of Roman Catholic priests at 30,000

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From 1794 to 1815, the Government of Goa and other Portuguese Settlements in India received little attention from the Court of Lisbon, owing to various causes, the chief of which was the invasion of the Iberian Peninsula by the French. To protect Goa against any contingency, an English auxiliary force was obtained to garrison the two fortresses commanding the port until the general peace in Europe after the battle of Waterloo. In 1817, the Viceroy, the Count of Rio Pardo, repelled the inroads of the predatory forces from the Sáwant Wári State, capturing the fortress of Uspa and Rarim. This governor was, however, deposed in consequence of a revolution which took place in Goa in 1821. In 1835, a native of the place named Bernardo Peres da Silva was appointed Governor and Prefect of the Portuguese State of India by Dona Maria II., in reward for his adherence to the House of Braganza during the usurpation of Dom Miguel. But his reforms in Goa during the 17 days of his government ended in an *émeute* and his flight to Bombay. For about sixteen years after this event, Goa was undisturbed either by external foes or internal dissensions, except a brief military revolt, which resulted in the deposition of the Governor, Lopes de Lima. During the administration of Pestana, in 1845, the disturbances at Sáwant Wári and the shelter afforded at Goa to the rioters who had fled thither, threatened for a time to bring about a rupture with the British Government of Bombay. In 1852, the Ránís of Satari, headed by Dipají, revolted. In 1871, a rebellion broke out among the native army at Goa, in consequence of the Portuguese authorities making a stand against its exorbitant demands. To suppress this insurrection, the Court of Lisbon despatched a reinforcement, accompanied by the king's own brother, Dom Augusto. On the restoration of peace, the native regiments that had revolted were disbanded, and the colony is now held by 313 Portuguese soldiers. The former army has not been reorganized, as native regiments could only be dangerous to the handful of European troops; and the peace maintained throughout India by the British supremacy renders them unnecessary for any practical purposes.

The chief towns in the territory of Goa are—GOA or PANJIM, with

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The chief towns in the territory of Goa are—GOA OR PANJIM, with

3850 houses, and an estimated population of 14,134 souls; Margao 3898 houses, pop. 20,000; Mapuça, 3150 houses, pop. 12,097.

Goa City.—The capital of the Portuguese territory of the same name; situated near the mouth of the river Mandavi, in 15° 30′ N. lat., and 73° 57′ E. long. Goa is properly the name of three cities, which represent three successive stages in the history of Western India. The earliest of the three was an ancient Hindu city, before the invasion of the Muhammadans; the second, known as Old Goa, was the first capital of the Portuguese, and is still the ecclesiastical metropolis of Roman Catholic India; the third, commonly called Panjím, is the present seat of Portuguese administration. The original city of Goa (Goa Velha), built by the Kadambas, was situated on the banks of the river Juary. No traces of buildings exist at this day. The next town of Goa (Velha Cidade de Goa), generally known to foreigners as Old Goa, situated about 5 miles to the north of the Hindu capital, was built by the Muhammadans in 1479, nineteen years before the arrival of Vasco da Gama in India. This famous city, conquered by Albuquerque in 1510, became the capital of the Portuguese Empire in Asia; as such it was once the chief emporium of commerce between the East and West, and enjoyed the same privileges as the city of Lisbon. It reached the climax of its splendour during the 16th century; but with the decline of the Portuguese power in the following century, it began gradually to lose its significance in every respect, save as an ecclesiastical metropolis. The frequent plagues by which the population was repeatedly thinned, together with the removal of the seat of government to Panjím, and the suppression of the religious orders, contributed finally to effect its complete downfall. Instead of the 200,000 inhabitants which once formed its population, hardly 100 poverty-stricken creatures remain to haunt the few ecclesiastical edifices still standing. Foremost among the surviving edifices is the Cathedral dedicated to St. Catherine by Albuquerque, in commemoration of his entry into Goa on the day of her festival. Built as a parochial church in 1512, it was reconstructed in 1623 in its present majestic proportions, having been about a century before elevated to the rank of a primatial see, which it has ever since retained. Service is regularly held every day by the Canons attached to the Cathedral. The Convent of St. Francis, originally a Muhammadan mosque, converted into a church by the Portuguese, was the first structure consecrated to Catholic worship in Goa. Its chief portal, curious as being the earliest of its kind in Portuguese India, has been preserved intact to this day, though the convent itself was rebuilt in 1661. The Chapel of St. Catherine was erected in 1551, on the site of the gate of the Muhammadan city through which Albuquerque entered. The Church of Bom Jesus, commenced in 1594 and consecrated in 1603, is a splendid edifice,

enjoying a wide renown for the magnificent tomb holding the remains of the apostle of the Indies, St. Francis Xavier, the events of whose life are represented around the shrine. The Convent of St. Monica, commenced in 1606 and completed in 1627, was constructed for a community of nuns, now represented by a single venerable member. The Convent of St. Cajetan, erected in the middle of the 17th century by the order of the Theatines, is noted for its resemblance to St. Peter's at Rome, and is in excellent preservation. Of the other historical edifices with which Old Goa was formerly embellished, but few traces remain to give a conception of their pristine beauty and magnificence. The once renowned palace of the Viceroys, the spacious custom-house, and many other public buildings, have been completely destroyed. The College of St. Roque, belonging to the order of Jesus, the Senate-house, the once famous Palace of the Inquisition, the Church of the Miraculous Cross, the College of St. Paul, the Hospital of St. Lazarus, the Church and Convent of St. Augustine, as well as the college of the same name close by, are all in ruins. The arsenal, the chapel of the Cinco Chagas (the Five Wounds), and the ecclesiastical jail still remain standing in a dilapidated condition, but every year their walls yield to the crumbling finger of decay. The sites of the vanished buildings have been converted into cocoa-nut plantations, the ruins are covered with shrubs and moss, and the streets are overrun with grass. But though Old Goa has long since lost its civil importance, forming as it does at present only a suburb of Panjím, its ecclesiastical influence as the See of the Primate of the East still remains; and, as long as it can boast of its noble monuments of Christian piety, and retains the shrine of the great eastern evangelist, it will not cease to attract pilgrims from the most distant parts of the Catholic world.

The history of Goa has been very fully given in the preceding article. As far back as 1759, the ruin of the old city was complete. The governor changed his residence to Panjím, near the mouth of the river, and in the same year the Jesuits were expelled. With them went the last sparks of commercial enterprise. In 1775, the population, which at the beginning of the century had numbered nearly 30,000, was reduced to 1600, of whom 1198 were Christians. Goa remains in ruins to this day. Every effort to re-people it has failed, and Old Goa is now a city of fallen houses and of streets overgrown with jungle. Almost the only buildings which survive are the convents and churches, with miserable huts attached. In 1827, the Superior of the Augustinian Convent thus wrote: 'Il ne reste plus de cette ville que le sacre: le profane en est entièrement banni.' 'Nothing remains of the city but the sacred; the profane has entirely disappeared.' The stately mansions and magnificent public buildings of Old Goa are now heaps of bricks covered with rank grass, and buried in groves of cocoa-nut trees. 'The river,' wrote Dr.

Russell in 1877, 'washes the remains of a great city,—an arsenal in ruins; palaces in ruins; quay walls in ruins; churches in ruins; all in ruins. We looked and saw the site of the Inquisition, the bishop's prison, a grand cathedral, great churches, chapels, convents, religious houses, on knolls surrounded by jungle. We saw the crumbling masonry which once marked the lines of streets and enclosures of palaces, dockyards filled with weeds and obsolete cranes.'

Nova Goa, the present capital of Portuguese India, comprehends Panjím, Ribandar, as well as the old city of Goa, and is 6 miles in extent. It is situated on the left bank of the river Mandavi, at a distance of about 3 miles from its mouth. The suburb of Ribandar is connected with the central quarter of Panjím by a causeway about 300 yards long, through which lies the main road leading to Old Goa. Panjím occupies a narrow strip, enclosed by the causeway on the east, the village of St. Ignez on the west, the river on the north, and a hill which walls it on the south. In the last century it was a miserable village, inhabited by a few fishermen dwelling in *cadjan* huts, and remarkable only for the fortress built by Yusaf Adil Sháh, which is since transformed into a viceregal palace. As in the case of Bombay city, the surface has been gradually formed by filling up hollows and reclaiming large tracts of marshy land. The present population is returned at 14,134 persons, dwelling in 3850 houses.

Panjím was selected as the residence of the Viceroy in 1759; and in 1843, it was formally raised by royal decree to the rank of the capital of Portuguese India. From the river, the appearance of the city, with its row of public buildings and elegant private residences, is very picturesque; and this first impression is not belied by a closer inspection of its neat and spacious roads bordered by decent houses. Of public structures, the most imposing are the barracks, an immense quadrangular edifice, the eastern wing of which accommodates the College or Lyceum, the Public Library, and the Professional Institute for teaching chemistry, agriculture, and other sciences. The square facing this wing is adorned by a life-size statue of Albuquerque standing under a canopy. The other buildings include the cathedral, the viceregal palace, the high court, the custom-house, the municipal chamber, the military hospital, the jail, the accountant-general's office, and the post office. For trade, etc., see pp. 381–2.

Goálánda.—Subdivision of Farídpur District, Bengal; extending from 23° 31′ to 23° 55′ N. lat., and from 89° 22′ to 89° 54′ E. long. Area, 429 square miles; number of villages or townships, 926; number of houses, 49,725; total pop. (1872), 303,138, viz. 179,863 Muhammadans, 122,260 Hindus, 63 Christians, and 952 'others.' Average number of persons per square mile, 706; villages, 2·16; persons per village, 327; houses per square mile, 116; persons per house, 6·1.

Goálánda Subdivision includes the three *thánás* or police circles of Goálánda, Belgáchhí, and Pángsá.

Goálanda.—River mart in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated in 23° 50′ 10″ N. lat., and 89° 46′ 10″ E. long., at the confluence of the main streams of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. Estimated pop., about 1000. Ten years ago but a small fishing village, with an evil reputation for river *dakáiti*, Goálanda has now become one of the most important centres of trade in Bengal, as the terminus of the Eastern Bengal Railway and the point of departure of the Assam steamers. Its modern career has not been without vicissitudes; and it is not impossible that the irresistible waywardness of the rivers, which have brought to it its prosperity, may again in a few years divert commerce to another direction. The town, which consists of little more than a railway station, a *bázár*, and a court-house, stands upon an alluvial tongue of land lying at the junction of two great river systems. During the cold weather, a temporary line of rail is laid down to the river bank, and the process of transhipping goods from steamer or boat to railway truck is conducted safely on the water's edge. But when the two rivers rise in flood about July, the operations of commerce are driven back inland. The river bank over which trains were running a few weeks before, becomes a boiling sea of waters, where even the steamers find a difficulty in making headway. At this season, the eye may look north or east over 3 or 4 miles of uninterrupted water. When a storm comes on, the native craft flee for shelter to distant creeks on the opposite banks of the river, and the steamers themselves are sometimes compelled to make for the less exposed mart of Kushtia. The railway extension from Kushtia to Goálanda was first opened in 1870; and up to 1875 the station stood upon an artificial embankment near the water's edge, protected by a masonry spur running out into the river. From first to last, about £130,000 was spent upon these protective works, and it was hoped that engineering skill had conquered the violence of the Gangetic flood. But in August 1875, the river rose to an unprecedented height. The solid masonry spur, the railway station, and Subdivisional offices were all swept away; and at the present time there is deep water over their site. A new permanent terminus has been erected about 2 miles from the river bank.

The trade of Goálanda consists almost entirely in the transhipment of goods from river to rail. In addition to a large through traffic conducted direct with Assam, the agricultural produce of the surrounding Districts is here collected for despatch to Calcutta. In the year 1876-1877, the value of the total trade, including both exports and imports, was returned at more than 3 millions sterling. The principal item is jute, of which 1,685,200 *maunds* were received during the year, valued at £505,000. The aggregate amount of oil-seeds (chiefly mustard) was

642,000 *maunds*, valued at £250,000; of food grains (chiefly rice), 994,000 *maunds*, valued at £180,000; of tobacco, 270,000 *maunds*, valued at £140,000. The most important articles obtained in exchange from Calcutta are European piece-goods and salt. In 1876-77, the imports of cotton goods were valued at £300,000, entirely by rail; the importation of salt was 180,000 *maunds* (of which only one-third came by rail), valued at £88,000. The steamers of three companies touch at Goálanda, running to Assam, Sirájganj, Dacca, and Cáchár; but the greater portion of the trade is still carried in country boats, of which 54,000 were registered as passing Goálanda in 1877-78. This number does not include the fleets of fishing boats, which add so much to the liveliness of the scene. The curing of *hilsa* fish forms a staple industry of the place. Salt is issued to the curers under close Government supervision, and a drawback is allowed at the rate of Rs. 2.12 per *maund* of salt used. The merchants of Goálanda are chiefly Márwárís, or Káyas as they are locally called. The most influential man, Mahásinh Magráj, Rái Bahádur, of Murshidábád, has agents at every mart on the Brahmaputra as far up as Dibrugarh. There are also many Bengálí and Musalmán traders. The *bázár* is held daily, and is largely frequented both by wholesale dealers and petty shopkeepers.

Goálpára.—The District of Goálpára is the most westerly District of the Province of Assam, forming the entrance to the upper valley of the Brahmaputra. It lies on both sides of the great river, extending from 25° 32′ to 26° 54′ N. lat., and from 89° 44′ to 91° E. long. It is bounded north by the mountains of Bhután, and south by the newly formed District of the Gáro Hills. Excluding the Eastern Dwárs, which are treated of in a separate article, it now contains an area of 2865 square miles; and the population, according to the Census of 1872, numbers 407,714 persons. The administrative headquarters are at GOALPARA TOWN, situated on the left or south bank of the Brahmaputra.

Physical Aspects.—The permanently settled portion of the District occupies the narrow valley of the Brahmaputra, at the corner where the great river leaves Assam Proper and turns due south to enter the wide plain of Bengal. It is very irregularly shaped, extending for only 65 miles along the northern bank of the Brahmaputra, and for 120 miles along its southern bank. The level land on the south bank forms but a narrow strip, in some parts not more than 8 miles across, being shut in by the ridges of the Gáro Hills. On the north, the cultivated plain gradually merges in the low jungle of the Eastern Dwárs. The scenery throughout is of a striking character. Along the channel of the river grow dense clumps of cane and reed. Farther back, the wide expanses of rice cultivation are only broken by the fruit-trees surrounding the village sites. In the background rise forest-clad hills, overtopped in the far distance by the snow-capped peaks of the Himálayas. The

soil of the hills and of the higher ground consists of a red ochreous earth, interspersed with large blocks of granite and sandstone. The latter are subject to disintegration from exposure to the weather. In the plains, the soil is of alluvial formation, being either tenacious clay or clay more or less mixed with sand. Earthquakes are common in Goálpára, and very severe shocks have occasionally been experienced.

Besides the Brahmaputra, the three following tributaries of the great river on its northern bank are navigable for boats of considerable size throughout the year:—The Manás, Gadádhár, and Sankos. These all rise in the Bhután Hills, and flow through the Eastern Dwárs into Goálpára. Several other minor streams become navigable during the rainy season. Alluvion and diluvion are continually taking place in the course of the Brahmaputra, as testified by the numerous islands and sandbanks that dot its broad channel. This river, also, annually inundates a large tract of country on both its banks; and the flood-water stands all the year long in the wide *bíls* or marshes, some of which cover an area of from 6 to 12 miles each. In the Eastern Dwárs, the Government forests form an important department of the administration, and cover an area of 422 square miles. There are also valuable forests in private hands, estimated to yield about £3000 a year to their proprietors. Wild animals of all kinds abound in Goálpára, including tigers, rhinoceros, and buffaloes. It is on record that, about twenty-five years ago, more money was annually expended in rewards for the killing of wild animals than was realized from the land revenue. Even in the three years ending 1870, the average number of deaths from wild beasts and snake-bite averaged 116 annually. No coal or other minerals have been found in Goálpára, but the hills abound with large stones which might be utilized for building purposes.

History.—Goálpára has always formed the frontier between Bengal and Assam, and has participated to the full in the vicissitudes attending such a position. In the earliest times, it must have constituted part of the legendary Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp, which is said to have extended from the head of the Assam valley far across the plains of Bengal to what are now the borders of Purniah District. The only remains of this period may perhaps be found in the ruined temple of Thákeswari. The next dynasty which can be localized in this region is that of the early Rájás of Kuch Behar, whose empire was almost as extensive as that of the fabled Kámrúp. But it fell to pieces by subdivision in the generation after it was founded; and the present Rájá of Bíjni Dwár, who holds a large *zamíndárí* in the settled portion of the District, claims to be descended from a younger son of a Kuch Behar king, and to hold his lands as a royal appanage. About 1600 A.D., two armies of invaders were closing upon Goálpára from different directions, and the divided kingdom could offer no resistance. From

the east, the wild Ahams gradually spread down the valley of the Brahmaputra, to which they subsequently gave their own name of Assam; while, from the west, the Mughals pushed forward the limits of the Delhi empire and of the faith of Islám. The Muhammadans first appeared on the scene; and thus Goálpára was definitively assimilated to Eastern Bengal in administration and ethnical characteristics. It was in the year 1603, twenty-seven years after Bengal had been wrested from the Afgháns by Akbar's generals, that the Mughals first reached the Brahmaputra, and annexed the Assam valley as far as the present District of Darrang. But here they soon came into collision with the Ahams. After a decisive defeat in the neighbourhood of Gauháti, in 1662, Mír Jumlá, the well-known general of Aurangzeb, was obliged to retreat; and the Muhammadan frontier was permanently fixed at the town of Goálpára. At this place and at Rángámátí, on the opposite bank of the Brahmaputra, military officers were stationed, among whose duties it was to encourage the growth of jungle and reeds, to serve as a natural protection against the inroads of the dreaded Ahams. About this time, also, the Eastern Dwárs fell into dependence upon Bhután.

This was the position of affairs when the British obtained possession of the *díwání* of Bengal in 1765. The small extent to which the Mughals here assimilated their conquest may be judged from the fact, that the Musalmán element in the population of the District now amounts to 22 per cent., as against 51 per cent. in the neighbouring jurisdiction of Rangpur. Another significant feature in the Mughal administration of Goálpára was the lightness of the revenue assessment. The land was left in the hands of border chieftains, whose residence in some cases lay beyond the recognised frontier, and who paid a merely nominal tribute. This system was stereotyped in the Permanent Settlement of 1793, by which the land revenue of the District was fixed in perpetuity at the trifling total of £1170. At the present day, Goálpára is the paradise of great landlords. There are altogether only 18 estates; and it is estimated that the average rentals exceed the amount paid to Government by fifty-fold. The average rate of assessment throughout the settled portion of Goálpára is less than 1d. per head of population, as compared with 1s. 5d. in Assam generally, and 1s. 2d. in Bengal. During the early years of British administration, Goálpára was administered as an integral portion of Rangpur District; but in 1822, it was formed into an independent jurisdiction under a Commissioner. This step was undertaken with a view to establishing a special system of government over the Gáros and other wild tribes on the frontier. It was also thought desirable to place a European officer at Goálpára town, which was then the outpost station towards the disturbed frontier of Assam. This town had long occupied a peculiar position of

commercial and political importance. So far back as 1788, a European merchant, Mr. Raush, who settled there, is stated to have despatched at his own charges an armed force of 700 men to assist the Assam Rájá in quelling an insurrection of the Moámáriás; and as the opposite bank of the Brahmaputra lay within Assamese territory, Goálpára had become a sort of free port for river traffic. After the conquest of Assam by the British in 1825, Goálpára District was immediately annexed to the new Province, though for revenue purposes the administration has always continued to be conducted in accordance with the Bengal Regulations. The Bhután war of 1864 brought about another change. The Dwárs ceded by the Bhutiás were attached partly to the newly formed District of Jalpáigurí and partly to Goálpára; and the whole tract, together with the State of Kuch Behar, was erected into the Kuch Behar Commissionership under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. But this severance was not of long duration. In 1868, the civil and criminal jurisdiction of Goálpára was again transferred to the Judicial Commissioner of Assam; and in 1872, when Assam was constituted a Province independent of Bengal, the entire administration in all departments was included in the new Province. The Deputy Commissioner, as the chief European officer is now styled, exercises the powers possessed in Bengal by a Magistrate and Collector, and also those of a subordinate judge; while the functions of a civil and sessions judge rest with the Judicial Commissioner of the Province.

People. — Goálpára, as forming part of the Bengal District of Rangpur, was included in the statistical survey conducted by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton in the beginning of the present century. He estimated the total number of inhabitants at 176,000, within an area of 2915 square miles. There can be no doubt that the population has largely increased since that date. The regular Census of 1872, which was confined to the permanently settled tract, disclosed a total population of 407,714 persons, dwelling in 1330 *mauzás* or villages and in 65,767 houses. The area was then taken at 2571 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 159; villages per square mile, ·52; houses per square mile, 26. The average number of persons per village is 307; of persons per house, 6·9. Classified according to sex, there are 210,134 males and 197,580 females; proportion of males, 51·54 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under twelve years of age—76,692 males and 63,915 females; total children, 140,607, or 34·4 per cent. of the total population. The ethnical division of the population shows 27 Europeans, 4 Americans, and 12 Eurasians; 74 Asiatics from beyond the British frontier; 97,732 aborigines; 132,095 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 86,001 Hindus subdivided according to caste; 1853 persons of Hindu origin not

recognising caste; 89,916 Muhammadans. Generally speaking, Goálpára presents the ethnical aspects of a frontier District, in which the hill tribes have been imperfectly assimilated by the Hindus. It is curious to observe that the number of the Hindus proper is actually exceeded by that of the Muhammadans, who did not hold possession of the country for much over a hundred years. The aborigines of the Census Report are chiefly represented by the three kindred tribes of Rábhá (30,124), Mech (29,877), and Káchárí or Cachari (22,775). Next come the Gáros, numbering 9957, who are immigrants from the neighbouring hills on the south, and are fully described in the article on the GARO HILLS DISTRICT. The great bulk of the semi-Hinduized aborigines consists of the Kochs, who number 118,091. The Kochs are properly an aboriginal tribe, akin to the Káchárís and Mechs; but since the high position attained by the conquering Rájás of Kuch Behar, their tribesmen have been admitted within the pale of Hinduism under the high-sounding title of Rájbansi. The term 'Koch,' also, is vaguely used at the present time as applicable to all new converts made by the Bráhmans; and members of every rank in society may be found included in this caste. Among Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 2366, chiefly belong to the Vaidik sept, who are said to have migrated from Hindustán at a remote period; the Rájputs number only 267; the Káyasths, 1438. By far the most numerous caste is the Jaliyá (19,230), whose occupation is that of fishermen, and who are supposed to be connected with the well-known Kaibarttas of Bengal. Next in number come the Kolitás (11,527), a caste peculiar to Assam, who exercised priestly functions under the native dynasty before the advent of the Bráhmans. They now rank as pure Súdras, and are chiefly employed in agriculture. They are found in greater numbers in the Districts of Upper Assam. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 311,419, or 76 per cent.; Musalmáns, 89,916, or 22 per cent.; the remainder is made up of 141 Christians (including 98 native converts), and 6238 'others.' The majority of the Hindus belong to the Vishnuvite sect, but the Vaishnavs proper are returned in the Census Report as numbering only 1602 persons. A branch of the Bráhma Samáj was established by Bengali immigrants in 1868, but theistic principles have not made progress among the natives of the District. Mention is made of a peculiar sect called Mahápurúshiyá Bhakat, whose members meet at night to eat flesh and drink wine. The Jains are represented by a few Márwárí traders from the north-west, settled at Goálpára town. Of the Musalmán population, those residing in the towns have adopted the Faráizi or reforming creed, while many in the interior are described as scarcely differing from their Hindu neighbours in their rites and image-worship. The

native Christians are mainly Gáros, dwelling on the southern boundary of the District, under the charge of the American Baptist Mission.

The population of Goálpára is entirely rural. There is no place with more than 5000 inhabitants; and out of the 1330 villages of the Census Report, 1083 each contains less than 500 persons. GOALPARA, with between 3000 and 4000 inhabitants, is the most populous place in the District, as well as the chief centre of trade. DHUBRI is the headquarters of a Subdivision, and the point where the traffic of Northern Bengal is shipped on board the Assam steamers. Gauripur and Lakhshmipur possess a thriving trade in timber, and are both the residences of wealthy *zamíndárs*. All these places are situated on the banks of the Brahmaputra.

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop of the District is rice, which is not, however, cultivated so exclusively as in Upper Assam. The principal harvest is the *haimantik*, *sálí*, or *áman* rice, sown on low lands about June, transplanted a month later, and reaped in mid-winter. Next in importance is the *áus* rice, sown about March on comparatively high lands, from which a second crop of pulses or oil-seeds can be taken later in the year, and reaped about July. *Báo* or long-stemmed rice is cultivated in marshes, being sown in March and reaped in October. Neither of these two last varieties are transplanted. Mustard is largely grown as an oil-seed on the *chars* and alluvial accretions in the bed of the Brahmaputra. The acreage under jute has rapidly increased in recent years, and this fibre now furnishes the staple export from the District. The less important crops include many varieties of pulses and vegetables, wheat, sugar-cane, and *pán* or betel-leaf. According to the latest agricultural statistics, out of a total area of 1,832,000 acres only about 600,000 are under tillage; rice is grown on about 400,000 acres, and mustard seed on 74,000. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is used on *áus* or high lands, especially for the sugar-cane crop. Irrigation is only practised in the neighbourhood of the northern hills, where the villagers combine to divert the hill streams over their fields by means of artificial channels. Land is nowhere suffered to lie fallow all the year through; but, for the most part, only one crop in the year is taken off the same field. A fair out-turn from an acre of *sálí* land would be 18½ cwts. of unhusked paddy, worth about £3; from an acre of *áus* land, 15 cwts. of paddy, worth about £2, 8s. Under favourable circumstances, a second crop from either description of land might raise the total value of the annual out-turn to nearly £4. As Goálpára is a permanently settled District in accordance with the Regulations prevalent in Bengal, the rates of rent are not fixed by Government as in Assam Proper, but vary on the estates of the several *zamíndárs*. According to official returns furnished in 1870, the rent paid for *bastu* or homestead land varies in the different *parganás*, from

3s. to 14s. an acre; for *sáli* land, from 2s. 7d. to 6s. 3d.; and for *áus* land, from 1s. to 5s. The forms of land tenure resemble those in the neighbouring Districts of Bengal. Various classes of under-tenants intervene between the *zamíndár* and the actual cultivator of the soil; and in many cases the cultivator has no recognised interest in the land, but is merely a labourer paid by a certain proportion of the produce. The most numerous class of under-tenants with permanent rights are those styled *jotdárs;* while *prájá*, *ádhiár*, and *chukánidár* are the common names for labourers, the amount of whose service or remuneration varies in each case. Rights of occupancy are almost unknown in Goálpára.

Rates of wages have approximately doubled within the past twenty-five years. Ordinary labourers, when paid in cash, now receive from 9s. to 12s. a month; skilled artisans can earn as much as £2. The price of food grains has also risen greatly. In 1871, best rice sold at 13s. 8d. per cwt.; common rice, at 4s. 1d.; common unhusked paddy, at 2s.; sugar-cane, at 4s. 1d.

The District is not specially liable to any form of natural calamity. Blights, caused by worms and insects, have been known to occur; and in 1863, the country was visited by swarms of locusts. These visitations, however, have never been on such a scale as to affect the general harvest. Similarly, Goálpára is exposed to river floods, especially in the upper part of the District, where there is great need of protective embankments; but no inundation has ever produced a scarcity. Partial droughts are caused by deficiency of the local rainfall; but in such cases the sterility of the higher levels would be compensated by the increased area of marshy land brought into cultivation. If the price of common rice were to rise in January to 14s. a cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress later in the year.

Manufactures, etc.—The manufactures of Goálpára consist of the making of brass and iron utensils, gold and silver ornaments, the weaving of silk cloth, basket work, and pottery. It is said that in recent years the competition of the cheaper Bengal articles has seriously injured the local industries, which used to be of a highly artistic character and of honest workmanship. A speciality still remaining is the *thagí* or *sarái*, a silver tray occasionally inlaid with gold. Silk cloth is woven from the cocoons of the *eriá* and *mugá* worms. The former, which is the more domesticated variety of the two, is fed on the leaves of the castor-oil plant; the latter on the *saola* or *súm* tree. The silk of Goálpára is regarded as inferior in texture, but superior in durability to that of Upper Assam. The cultivation and manufacture of tea has recently been introduced into Goálpára. In 1874, there were 284 acres under cultivation (including newly opened gardens), with an

out-turn of 5248 lbs., showing a considerable increase on the previous year. None of the 781 labourers employed were imported under contract from Bengal.

The external commerce of the District is entirely conducted by means of the Brahmaputra, the chief centres of traffic being Goálpára town, Dhubri, Jogigophá, Bijni, Gauripur, and Singimári. The local trade is principally in the hands of Márwárí merchants from the north-west. It is carried on at permanent *bázárs*, weekly *háts* or markets, and periodical fairs held on the occasion of religious festivals. The chief exports from the Districts are mustard seed and jute from the plains, and cotton, timber, and lac from the hills; there is also some export of silk cloth, india-rubber, and tea. The commodities received in exchange comprise—Bengal rice, European piece-goods, salt and hardware, oil and tobacco.

The chief means of communication are the rivers, especially the Brahmaputra, which is navigated by steamers and the largest native boats all the year through. Three roads in the District, including the Assam Trunk Road in the north, are under the management of the Public Works Department. The other roads, maintained out of local funds, are in a poor condition; but an improvement in this respect is anticipated from the extension of the Road Cess Act to the District, which took place in 1875. It has been proposed to construct a line of railway in the north of the District, to connect it with the recently opened Northern Bengal State Railway at Jalpáigurí.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Goálpára District (including the Eastern Dwárs) amounted to £18,309, towards which the land tax contributed £4235, and the excise, £6225; the expenditure was £20,266, or nearly £2000 more than the revenue. The balance in the treasury is adjusted by the receipt of £6770 from Kuch Behar, being the tribute of that State, which is still paid at Goálpára. The total of the land revenue is extremely small, but it has increased somewhat since the annexation of the Eastern Dwárs. By 1874-75, it had risen to £6229, of which only £1170 was obtained from the permanently settled portion of the District. It is curious to observe that, in the matter of excise or *ábkárí*, Goálpára clearly manifests its character of a border region. Under this item, the incidence of taxation is 3½d. per head of population, against 8½d. in Assam generally, and 2d. for the whole of Bengal. In 1870, there was 1 European officer stationed in the District, and 3 magisterial and 4 civil and revenue courts were open. For police purposes, Goálpára is divided into 8 *thánás* or police circles, excluding the Eastern Dwárs. The following statistics, however, apply to the entire District:—In 1872, the regular police force consisted of 321 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £5678. These figures show 1 policeman to every

13·81 square miles, or to every 1385 of the population, the average cost of maintenance being £1, 5s. 7½d. per square mile and 3d. per head of population. There is no municipal police, nor any *chaukídárs* or village watch. In the same year, the total number of persons in the District convicted of any offence, great or small, amounted to 579, or 1 person to every 568 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences. There is one jail at Goálpára town, with a Subdivisional lock-up at Dhubri. In 1872, the average daily number of prisoners was 99, of whom one was a woman; the labouring convicts numbered 85. These figures show 1 prisoner to every 4488 of the District population. The total cost of the jail was £694, or £7, 1s. 8d. per prisoner. The jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £23, 0s. 7d. The death-rate was 40·8 per thousand.

Education had not made much progress in Goálpára until within the last few years. In 1856, there were only 15 schools in the District, attended by 194 pupils. By 1870, after a temporary decline, these numbers had increased to 31 schools and 862 pupils. The reforms of Sir G. Campbell, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was extended to the village schools or *pathsálás*, raised the total number of inspected schools in 1873 to 92, and of pupils to 2137, giving 1 school to every 27 square miles, and 5 pupils to ever 1000 of the population. In that year the total expenditure was £1419, towards which Government contributed £582. The chief educational establishment is the Higher-Class English School at Goálpára town, which is described as not being in a prosperous condition, the number of pupils having steadily fallen from 120 in 1869 to 57 in 1873. The American Baptist Mission is assisted by Government in maintaining a normal school and 13 *páthsálás* among the Gáros, who live on the southern boundary of the District.

For administrative purposes, Goálpára is divided into 2 Subdivisions, not including the Eastern Dwárs, and into 8 *thánás* or police circles. In the permanently settled tract there are 17 *parganás* or fiscal divisions, with an aggregate of 18 estates, of which only 6 date from a period subsequent to the Permanent Settlement. Goálpára town was constituted a municipality in 1875, under Act vi. of 1868. The estimated municipal income is £300, of which the greater part is expended on sanitation.

Medical Aspects.—The rainy season or monsoon lasts for five months, from the middle of May to the middle of October. It is succeeded by the cold weather, which is marked by heavy fogs during the early morning. The prevailing winds are easterly; but during the three months from March to May, hot winds occasionally blow from the west, and thunderstorms come up from the south-west. The mean annual temperature is returned at 75°. In 1873, the maximum

recorded was 99·70° in the month of July; and the minimum, 41·3° in January. The average annual rainfall is 98·75 inches.

Goálpára District is considered very unhealthy both for Europeans and natives, especially during the rainy season. The whole country round Goálpára town is charged with malarious exhalations. The prevalent diseases are—intermittent and remittent fevers, complicated with affections of the spleen; diarrhœa, dysentery, rheumatism, and chest affections. Epidemic outbreaks of cholera are frequent, and small-pox annually appears, owing to the popular custom of inoculation. The vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate for 1874 of 40·4 in the rural area, and 68·4 in the urban area, the latter being practically Goálpára town. Out of a total of 597 deaths, 333 were assigned to fevers, 113 to cholera, and 85 to bowel complaints. There are 3 charitable dispensaries in the District, which were attended in 1874 by 324 in-door and 2718 out-door patients; the total expenditure was £443, towards which Government contributed £147.

Goálpára.—Headquarters Subdivision of above District, Assam; containing a pop. (1872) of 220,125 persons, residing in 849 villages or towns and 38,721 houses. The Subdivision comprises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Goálpára, Fákirgáon, and Sálmára.

Goálpára Town.—Chief town of the District of the same name, Assam; situated on the south or left bank of the Brahmaputra. Lat. 26° 11′ N., long. 90° 41′ E.; pop. (1872), 4678; municipal revenue (1876-1877), £398; rate of taxation, 1s. 4d. per head of population within municipal limits (6061). Goálpára is said to derive its name from a colony of Hindu Goálás or cowherds who settled here in early times. It was the frontier outpost of the Muhammadans in the direction of Assam, and afterwards a flourishing seat of trade before the British annexed that Province. In 1788, the name of a Mr. Raush appears as a merchant settled here, who sent a force of 700 armed guards to assist the Rájá of Assam against his revolted subjects. The civil station is built on the summit of a hill, rising 260 feet above the plain, which commands a magnificent view over the valley of the Brahmaputra; bounded north by the snow-capped Himálayas, and south by the Gáro Hills. The native town is situated on the western slope of this hill, and the lower streets are subject to inundation from the marshy land which stretches all around. The town is regularly laid out, but the houses are almost all made of wooden posts, mats, and thatch, so that destructive fires are of frequent occurrence. Goálpára is still an important centre of river trade, and especially a depot for the timber floated down from the Eastern Dwárs. In 1876-77, the imports from Bengal included 153,400 *maunds* of rice, 97,400 *maunds* of salt, and European piece-goods valued at £64,700. Communication is main-

tained by a steam ferry with Dhubri on the opposite bank of the Brahmaputra, the terminus of the Bengal system of roads.

Gobardángá.—Municipal town in the north of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 52′ 40″ N., long. 88° 47′ 55″ E.; situated on the eastern bank of the Jamuná. Pop. (1872), 6952; municipal revenue (1876-77), £331; rate of taxation, 10¾d. per head of population. Police force, 18 men. English school, branch dispensary. Export of jute, molasses, and sugar. Tradition points out this village as the spot where Krishna tended his flocks.

Gobardhán.—Ancient town and place of pilgrimage in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 29′ 55″ N., long. 77° 30′ 15″ E.; lies among the low rocky hills on the western frontier. Noticeable only for its antiquarian remains, which include—the sacred tank of Manasi Gangá, where the pilgrims bathe at the close of the rains; the temple of Hari Deva, erected during Akbar's reign by Rájá Bhagwán Dás of Ambar, governor of the Punjab; the two cenotaphs of Randhír Sinh and Baldeva Sinh, Rájás of Bhartpur, who died in 1823 and 1825; and the monument of Suraj Mall, erected by Jawahir Sinh, his son, soon after his death at Delhi in 1764. The last-named memorial comprises three cenotaphs, nine kiosks, and a large garden with an artificial lake.

Gobardhángiri.—Fortified hill on the frontier between Shimogá District, Mysore (lat. 14° 9′ N., long. 74° 43′ E.), and the Madras District of North Kanara, commanding the old pass that leads by the Falls of Gersoppa. Annually traversed by 50,000 pack-bullocks. The fort is in fair repair, but abandoned.

Gobíndpur.—Subdivision of Mánbhúm District, Bengal; situated between 23° 38′ and 24° 3′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 9′ 15″ and 86° 52′ 15″ E. long. Pop. (1872), 154,742, viz. 119,772 Hindus, 10,842 Muhammadans, 31 Christians, and 24,097 'others;' area, 782 square miles; villages or townships, 1220; houses, 28,593. Average number of persons per square mile, 198; villages per square mile, 1·56; persons per village, 127; houses per square mile, 37; persons per house, 5·4. This Subdivision comprises the 3 police circles of Gobíndpur, Nirshá, and Topchánchi. In 1870-71, it contained 2 magisterial courts, a general police force of 87 men, and a village watch 680 strong; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £1448.

Gobrá.—Solitary village in the Jessor portion of the SUNDARBANS, Bengal. Cited as a proof that this tract was once inhabited. Ruins of masonry buildings still exist; but embankments alone prevent Gobrá from being washed away by the Kabadak.

Godágarí.—Village and headquarters of a police circle, Rájsháhí District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 28′ N., long. 88° 21′ 33″ E.; situated in the

extreme west of the District, on the banks of the Ganges. An important trading village, with a considerable river traffic with the North-Western Provinces.

Godávari.—A District of British India in the Madras Presidency, lying between 16° 15′ and 17° 35′ N. lat., and between 80° 55′ and 82° 38′ E. long. Area, after recent transfers, 7345 square miles; population, by Census of 1871, 1,592,939. Bounded on the north by the Central Provinces and Vizagapatam District, on the east by Vizagapatam and the Bay of Bengal, on the south by the Bay of Bengal and Kistna District, and on the west by the Nizám's Dominions.

Physical Aspects.—The District is divided into two almost square parts by the GODAVARI river. At Dowlaishvaram, 30 miles inland, the river separates into two main branches, enclosing the *táluk* of Amalápur, the central delta of the river. The eastern delta comprises the *táluk* of Rámachandrapúr with the *zamíndárí* of Cocanada; the western, the *táluks* of Narsapur, Bhímávaram, and Tanuku. These deltas are flat, in some places even marshy. They present a vast and unbroken expanse of rice cultivation, dotted by villages, and varied only by clusters of palmyra, cocoa-nut or betel-nut palms. North of the delta the land gradually undulates, and the horizon is broken by conical hills interspersed here and there. Farther north the hills come closer together, and are thickly covered with jungle; but there is no real range of mountains met with till the long broken tableland of Papikonda (4200 feet) is reached. Here the Godávari river is completely shut in by hills, forming a magnificent gorge, in some places only 200 yards wide; whereas the river attains a breadth of about 3 miles at Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry), 50 miles lower down. The hills in all parts of the District are covered with jungle more or less dense. They are never quite inaccessible, but the numerous blocks of gneissic rock with which they are strewn render the construction of any road through or over them almost impossible. Teak is found here and there, and some of the higher hill ranges are covered with clumps of the feathery bamboo.

The only navigable rivers of the District are the GODAVARI and the SAVERI, which joins the former at Vaddigudem in Rekapilli *táluk*. The Godávari has seven mouths, viz. the Tulyabhága, the Atreya, the Gautami, the Vruddhagautami, the Bharadwajam, the Kausika, and the Vasishta. The large town of Narsapur is situated at the mouth of one of the two main branches, the French Settlement of Yanán at the mouth of the other. Thirty miles up the river is the famous Dowlaishvaram anicut; 4 miles farther on, the town of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). Northwards still, is the picturesque island of Patapatteshim, covered with pagodas, and a favourite resort of pilgrims; and close to it, the timber market of Polávaram. The shipbuilding

trade of the District is carried on at Tallarevu, on the Coringa branch of the river. Owing to the volume of the Godávari, and the quantity of silt brought down by it, not only the islands of the river (termed *lankas*) but the sea-coast itself are continually changing in form. Each of the seven mouths of the river is deemed holy, and the Godávari is one of the 12 rivers of India at which the feast of *Pushkaram* is celebrated. The bed of the Godávari, at the point where it enters the District, is sandy; but gradually turns into alluvial mould in its course through the delta. The only lake of importance is the Koleru, which is studded with islands and fishing villages. Sea-fishing is carried on along the coast. Building and lime stone are found in abundance in the uplands, and iron is smelted in small quantities. The forest tracts are those of Rampa and Bhadráchalam. Chief jungle products—myrabolans, soap-nuts, tamarind, bamboo-rice, honey, and bees-wax. The wild animals comprise the tiger, leopard, hyæna, wild-boar, antelope, deer, wolf, and bear. Game birds are plentiful.

History.—The present District of Godávari formed part of what is known as the Andhra Division of the Drávida country; the tract to the north-west of the river having probably been part of the kingdom of Kalinga, and more or less subject to the Orissa kings; while the south-western tract belonged to the Vengi kingdom, and owed allegiance to the Ganapatis of Warangul. The District formed for centuries a battle-field, on which the Chalukyas, Narapatis, the Reddi-war chiefs, and the aboriginal hill tribes, fought with varying success, until the arrival of the Muhammadans in the beginning of the 14th century. After a struggle lasting a century and a half between the Hindu chiefs and the Musálmán invaders from the west and north, the contest ended in the subjugation by the latter of nearly the whole of this District (1471-77). Subsequently, Krishna Ráya, the King of Vijáyanagar, overran the country in 1516, and for a time restored the ancient Hindu kingdom; lesser Hindu chiefs temporarily asserted and maintained their independence; but the whole of the country may be regarded as having passed under Muhammadan domination from the commencement of the 16th century. In 1687, the rule of the Kutab Sháhi kings was succeeded by that of the Delhi Mughals; Aurangzeb, after a long struggle, having succeeded in overthrowing the independent Bijápur and Golconda kings. Thenceforward the District became known as the Nawábship of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) in the *Subah* of Golconda, under the governorship of Asaf Jah. From the death of this illustrious Nizám, in 1748, commenced the struggles between the English and the French in the Deccan and Karnatic, which terminated in the final overthrow of the French power in the East. By 1753, Godávari had become a French Province, but in that year it was overrun by the Marhattás, then at the zenith of their power.

Long anterior to this, the English, French, and Dutch had placed factories within the District. The English settled at Masulipatam in 1611, the Dutch in 1660, and the French in 1679; in 1668, the Dutch seized the administration of the town. The English opened factories at Pettapalam, Virávasaram, and Madapolliem in the 17th century, at Injeram and Bandemarlanka early in the 18th; the Dutch held Palakollu, Narsapur, and Cocanada in 1650; the French occupied YANAON a century later (1750). In 1756, the French captured without resistance the English factories at Madapolliem, Bandemarlanka, and Injeram; but Lally's ill-advised recall of Bussy in 1758 soon put an end to the French domination in the Northern Circars. In the latter year, Colonel Forde's expedition marched into the District, and in December completely routed the French army under Conflans at Condore. This, followed by the capture of Narsapur and Masulipatam, practically left the Circars (including what now forms Godávari District) in English hands,—a state of things confirmed by Imperial Sanad in 1765. Until 1823, the Company paid an annual tribute to the Nizám, for the Northern Circars. In that year, it was commuted for a single payment of 11¾ *lákhs.* Till 1794, this new acquisition of the East India Company was administered on the old system, viz. by a Chief and Provincial Council. As that arrangement was not found satisfactory and proved unequal to the suppression of risings, such as these in Polávaram and Gutalá (1785-1787), a system of Collectorates was adopted; and three of these, under a principal Collector at Masulipatam, nearly represented the present Godávari District. From 1794 till 1802-3, when the Permanent Settlement was introduced, the history of the District is one continuous struggle with recusant *zamíndárs.* The Settlement, owing to insufficient knowledge, was unequal in its incidence, and consequently unsuccessful. Constant sales, lawsuits, and distraints were the result. The failure of the system was pointed out by Sir Thomas Munro in 1822; but it was not till 1843, after several seasons of famine, distress, and steady decline in wealth and population (the latter decreased 30 per cent. in 20 years), that Sir Henry Montgomery was appointed to inquire and report. The reforms instituted on his representations practically put an end to the Permanent Settlement in this District. In thirty years the population has doubled, and, thanks to the splendid system of navigable irrigation works, the agriculture and commerce of the District are now in a most prosperous condition. In 1859, the boundaries were readjusted, and the three Districts of Gantúr (Guntoor), Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry), and Masulipatam became the present Districts of Kistná and Godávari. In 1874, the *táluks* of Bhadráchalam and Rekapilli were transferred to this District from that of Upper Godávari in the Central Provinces.

Population has increased largely of late years. In 1856, the number of

inhabitants was returned at 1,081,703, and in 1861 at 1,366,831; while by 1871, the number had risen to 1,592,939, on an area of 6224 square miles, and dwelling in 389,712 houses. Classified according to age and sex, there were—male children, 310,898; female children, 256,223; male adults, 492,705; and female adults, 533,113: total males, 803,603—females, 789,336; grand total, 1,592,939. Boys below 12 and girls below 10 are reckoned as children. The population is almost entirely composed of Hindus, who are returned at 1,555,981, made up as follows:—Vishnuvites, 1,219,676, or 78·3 per cent.; Sivaites, 323,288, or 20·8 per cent.; Lingáyats, 10,210, or ·7 per cent.; other Hindus, 2807, or ·2 per cent. The most numerous Hindu castes are the Vallálars or cultivators, who number 498,373, or 32 per cent.; the Shanáns or toddy-drawers, 165,833, or 10·7 per cent.; and the Bráhmans or priestly caste, 90,882, or 5·8 per cent. Of the Muhammadans—who number 35,173 in all—31,394, or 89 per cent., are Sunnis; 2303 Shiás; and 19 Wahábís. The Christian population consists of 451 Europeans, 385 Eurasians, 585 native Christians, and 62 'others'; total, 1483. Protestants and Roman Catholics are about equally divided, there being 712 of the former to 772 of the latter. The remaining population consists of 39 Buddhists, and 263 belonging to other denominations not separately classified. The following 19 towns contain upwards of 5000 inhabitants:—ELLORE, 25,487; RAJAMAHENDRI, 19,738; COCANADA, 17,839; PITHAPURAM, 9246; PEDDAPURAM, 9202; DOWLAISHVARAM, 7252; AMALAPURAM, 7083; NARSAPUR, 6819; Polekurru, 5427; PALAKOLLU, 5931; ATTILI, 5878; ACHANTA, 5846; KORINGA, 5649; SAMULCOTTAH, 5535; KAPILESWARAPURAM, 5463; MANDAPETA, 5440; Velpuru, 5377; Velivelu, 5319; NAGAVARAM, 5271. Besides these there are 150 towns and villages of over 2000 inhabitants; the total number of villages being 2127. Three towns are constituted municipalities, viz. Ellore, Rájámahendri, and Cocanada, with an aggregate population (1871) of 63,064; total municipal income (1875-76), £5152, or at the rate of 1s. 7½d. per head of municipal population.

Agriculture.—The total area of the District, including recent transfers, is 7345 square miles, of which 2713 square miles, or 1,736,791 acres, are Government land. Of this, 488,615 acres are under cultivation, 386,440 acres are cultivable, and 861,736 acres uncultivable waste. The remaining area is comprised in the *zamíndárí* estates (for which no detailed information exists), or is forest land. By far the greater portion of the cultivated land is under rice. The chief crops of the District are:—(1) Cereals—(*a*) rice transplanted (white paddy), five varieties, sown in May and July, and reaped in November and January; two other sorts are sown in June and reaped in October; these crops are grown on marshy land: (*b*) black paddy, sown in June, and harvested in October; (*c*) *cholam*, sown in June and reaped in

November and January; (*d*) *rágí*, sown in May and June, and reaped in September; these last grow on dry lands: (2) Green crops—(*a*) gram (4 varieties), sown in December and reaped in February; (*b*) red-gram, sown in June and reaped in December: (3) Fibres—(*a*) cotton, sown in October and gathered in March; (*b*) jute, and (*c*) hemp, sown from June to August, and harvested from September to January; these are sown on dry land. The District also produces large quantities of gingelly, tobacco, sugar-cane, and indigo. Tobacco requires moist, and sugar-cane marshy, land; the other crops are 'dry.' Great improvement has taken place of late years in the quality of the rice and other food grains raised in the District, owing to the extension of irrigation by canals. A farm 100 acres in extent would be considered a large holding for an agriculturist, one of about 30 acres a middling-sized one, and one of 5 acres a very small one. Government tenants have a permanent right of occupancy in their lands so long as they pay the Government demand. In *zamíndárí* estates, on the other hand, the cultivators are mostly yearly tenants. A few holders of service lands cultivate their fields for themselves without assistance. A number of landless day-labourers are employed in cultivation, paid sometimes in money, and sometimes at a fixed rate in grain, but never by a regular share in the crop. Wages have doubled since 1850. A carpenter, smith, or bricklayer now earns from 9d. to 1s. a day, and an agricultural labourer from 3d. to 4½d. Women employed in weeding and transplanting are paid at from one-half to two-thirds of the rates for men, while children receive a lower rate. Paddy or unhusked rice, which in 1850 was returned at £2, 8s. per *garce* (9860 lbs. avoirdupois), is now (1876) worth £12 per *garce*.

Natural Calamities.—Godávari District was formerly liable to severe floods caused by a sudden rising of the river, but these are now controlled by the embankments. No great famine has occurred since 1833. In that year, a famine caused by want of rain lasted from March to September, and numbers of the inhabitants fled the District. Private charity was widely extended, but no relief works were opened. Pressure from high prices was also experienced in 1876-77; but the mass of the people being themselves cultivators, and irrigation being abundant, the distress did not require extraordinary relief.

Means of Communication, Manufactures, Trade, etc.—The District is well supplied with means of communication by 491 miles of good road, and 431 miles of canals. Principal manufactures—cotton and woollen carpets, sheep-wool blankets, Uppada cloths and sugar; chiefly conducted by the people on their own account. Indigo manufacture is carried on by natives. The chief articles of trade are grain, cotton, jaggery, turmeric, cocoa nut, flax cloth, onions, garlic, lace cloths, tobacco, gingelly seed, lamp-oil seed, salt, tamarind, cattle, teakwood,

hides, opium, indigo, etc. The trade is carried on along the coast ar in large towns and ports by means of permanent markets and in almo all other places by fairs. The principal seats of commerce ai Cocanada, Ellore, Rájámahendri, Mandapetta, Jaggampetta, Hasar bada, Narsapur, Palakollu, Dowlaishvaram, Ambajipetta, Jagannáthpu The estimated value of imports in 1874-75 was £204,238, exclusive o treasure, which amounted to £41,464. Estimated value of exports £903,253, exclusive of £75,550 of treasure.

Administration.—The Government revenue has steadily increased. In 1860-61, the first year after the present District was constituted, the total revenue amounted to £421,246, and the expenditure on civil administration to £48,017. In 1870-71, the revenue was £531,043, and the civil expenditure, £23,368. By 1875-76, the revenue had reached £558,812, while the expenditure was £28,604. For the protection of person and property, there were in 1870-71, 28 magisterial and 15 revenue and civil courts in the District. The regular police and municipal police force in 1876 numbered 1247 officers and men. In 1874-75, there were 387 schools maintained or supported by the State, attended by 7759 pupils. The administrative headquarters of the District are at Cocanada; but the judges' court and the District jail are at Rájámahendri.

Medical Aspects.—The prevailing endemic diseases of Godávari District are *beri-beri* and fevers. Cholera is prevalent during the hot seasons of the year; small-pox also occurs at the same periods; fevers come after the cessation of rain. Cattle diseases are also prevalent. Cholera is usually imported by travellers coming from the north. The average annual rainfall from 1871 to 1875 was 43·35 inches; the highest rainfall being in 1873, when 50·68 inches were registered, and the lowest in 1871, when only 33·64 inches fell. The mean temperature (Fahr.) for each month during 1876 at Rájámahendri was—January 85°, February 89°, March 97°, April 90°, May 80°, June 84°, July 86°, August 83°, September 74°, October 75°, November 74°, and December 74°.

Storms.—The last great cyclone was in 1832. The sea broke in at Coringa, and destroyed a great number of men, cattle, and houses; a small village near Coringa was entirely swept away, and the country was under water for many miles inland. Again, on the 16th November 1839, a similar storm destroyed great parts of Cocanada, Koringa, Tallarevu, and Nilapalli. Most of the vessels lying near these places were wrecked, and the value of the property lost was estimated at £100,000.

Godávari (*Godavery*).—A great river of Central India, which runs across the Deccan from the Western to the Eastern Gháts; for sanctity, picturesque scenery, and utility to man, surpassed only by the Ganges

and the Indus; total length, 898 miles; estimated area of drainage basin, 112,200 square miles. The traditional source is on the side of a hill behind the village of Trimbak, in Násik District, Bombay, only about 50 miles from the shore of the Indian Ocean. At this spot is an artificial reservoir, reached by a flight of 690 steps, into which the water trickles drop by drop from the lips of a carven image, shrouded by a canopy of stone. From first to last, the general direction of the river is towards the south-east. After passing through Násik District it forms for some distance the boundary between Ahmednagar and the dominions of the Nizám of Haidarábád. It then crosses into the territory of the Nizám, running for more than 500 miles of its course through a country that has been little explored. Near SIRONCHA, where it again strikes British territory, is the confluence of the PRANHITA, itself a noble river, which brings down the united waters of the WARDHA, the PENGANGA, and the WAINGANGA. From Sironcha to the point where it bursts through the barrier range of the Eastern Gháts, the south bank of the Godávari continues to lie within the Nizám's Dominions; while on the north stretches the narrow strip of country known as the UPPER GODAVARI DISTRICT, in the Central Provinces. In this portion of its course it is joined by the INDRAVATI, the TAL, and the SAVERI. It is now an imposing stream, with a channel varying from 1 mile to more than 2 miles in breadth, occasionally broken by long alluvial islands. The British bank is for the most part rocky and steep, and covered with primeval jungle. Parallel to the river run long ranges of hills, which at places advance their abrupt spurs almost to the water's edge. On the opposite side, the country is more open and cultivated. Several flourishing towns are to be seen, and the plain stretching away southwards, which included the capital of the ancient kingdom of Telingána, is thickly dotted with tanks for irrigation. Below the junction of the Sabari, the scenery assumes the character which has earned for the Godávari the name of the Indian Rhine. The channel begins to contract; the flanking hills gradually close in on either side, until the precipitous gorge is reached, only 200 yards wide, through which the entire volume of water is poured upon the alluvial plain of the delta, about 60 miles from the sea. This mountain range, and the remainder of the course of the river until it reaches the Bay of Bengal by three principal mouths, is entirely included within the Madras District of GODAVARI. The head of the delta is at the village of Dowlaishvaram, where the main stream is crossed by the irrigation anicut. The largest of the three branches, known as the Gautami Godávari, turns eastward, and, after passing the quiet French settlement of Yanán, enters the sea at Point Koringa, not far from the port of Cocanada. The most southerly branch, or the Vashista Godávari, debouches at Point Narsapur, after throwing off the third offshoot called the Vainateyam Godávari.

The peculiar sacredness of the Godávari is said to have been revealed by Ráma himself to the *rishi*, or sage Gautama. The river is sometimes called Godá, and the sacred character especially attaches to the Gautami mouth. According to popular legend, it proceeds from the same source as the Ganges, by an underground passage; and this identity is preserved in the familiar name of Vriddha-gangá. But every part of its course is holy ground, and to bathe in its waters will wash away the blackest sin. Once in every twelve years a great bathing festival, called *Pushkaram*, is held on the banks of the Godávari, alternately with the other eleven sacred rivers of India. The spots most frequented by pilgrims are—the source at Trimbak; the town of Bhadráchalam on the left bank, about 100 miles above Rájámahendri, where stands an ancient temple of Ráma-chandradu, surrounded by twenty-four smaller pagodas; Rájámahendri itself; and the village of Kotipali, on the left bank of the eastern mouth.

Throughout the upper portion of its course, the waters of the Godávari are scarcely at all utilized for irrigation; but within recent times, the entire delta has been turned into a garden of perennial crops by means of the anicut constructed at Dowlaishvaram. This great work was first projected in 1844, when the impoverished condition of the people, from repeated failures of the harvest, became the subject of a special report from Sir H. Montgomery. It was resolved by the Madras Government to undertake irrigation works on a comprehensive scale; and the management was entrusted to Captain (now Sir Arthur) Cotton, who had experience of the successful works on the Káverí (Cauvery) in Tanjore District. Operations were commenced in 1847, and completed according to the original design by 1850. Up to 1853, the total expenditure had been £153,000. The principal work is the anicut or weir at Dowlaishvaram, at the head of the delta, from which three main canals are drawn off. The river channel here is about 3½ miles wide, including the space occupied by islands. The anicut itself is a substantial mass of stone, bedded in lime cement, about 2½ miles long, 130 feet broad at the base, and 12 feet high. The stream is thus pent back, so as to supply a volume of 3000 cubic feet of water per second during its low season, and 12,000 cubic feet at time of flood. As is the case with all deltaic streams, the river runs along the crest of a natural embankment several feet above the alluvial plain. Dowlaishvaram is about 20 feet above the lowest level, and therefore easily commands the whole area of the delta. The total length of the main channels of distribution is estimated at 528 miles, capable of irrigating 780,000 acres. Of the 528 miles of canal, 463 miles are also used for navigation; and in 1872-73 carried 52,000 boats and rafts. In 1864, an extension of the original scheme was sanctioned, by which water communication has been opened between the river systems of the Godávari and the

Kistna. For a minute account of the history of these irrigation works, see *The Godavery District*, by Mr. H. Morris (Trübner, 1878).

The more recent project for opening for navigation the upper waters of the Godávari has not been crowned with equal success. In 1851, before the railway had penetrated through the heart of the peninsula, it was hoped that the Godávari, or rather its tributary the Wardha, might supply a cheap means of carriage for the cotton and other agricultural produce of the Central Provinces. This line of navigation would have had its upper terminus at the mart of Nachangáon, not far from Nágpur and Amráoti; and it would pass by the great cotton emporium of Hinghanghát, and the towns of Wún and Chánda, reaching the sea by the flourishing port of Cocanada. During nine months of the year, there is sufficient water for shallow river steamers; and the force of the current does not exceed 3 miles an hour. There are, however, three great obstructions to navigation, caused by rocky barriers and rapids. The first of these barriers is at Dumagudiem, about 115 miles above Rájámahendri; the second about 68 miles higher up, just below the confluence of the Pránhita; the third is on the Wardha, about 75 miles above the second. It was proposed to construct canals round these barriers by means of anicuts and locks, and to clear the river bed in other places by blasting. Between 1861 and 1863, about £700,000 was expended upon the navigation works; but comparatively little real progress had been made, and the prospects of any remunerative return had become more than doubtful. Finally, in October 1871, the entire undertaking was abandoned, in accordance with instructions from the Secretary of State for India. The navigation on the canals of the delta has already been alluded to.

Goddá.—Subdivision of Santál Parganás District, Bengal; situated between 24° 30′ and 25° 14′ N. lat., and between 87° 5′ and 87° 38′ E. long. Pop. (1872), 293,440, viz. 147,235 Hindus, 18,829 Muhammadans, 9 Christians, and 127,367 'others;' area, 937 square miles; villages or townships, 1634; houses, 54,439. Proportion of males in total population, 50 per cent.; average density of population, 313 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·74; persons per village, 180; houses per square mile, 58; inmates per house, 5·4. This Sub-district, which was constituted in 1856, consists of the one *thánd* or police circle of Goddá. In 1870-71 it contained 1 magisterial and revenue court, a general police force of 32 men, and a village watch of 600 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £1585.

Godhrá.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name, and of the District of the Pánch Maháls, Guzerat Province, Bombay. Lat. 22° 46′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 40′ E.; situated on the main road from Nímach (Neemuch) to Baroda, 40 miles north-east of Baroda town, and 43 west of Dohad. Pop. (1872), 10,635. In addition to the usual District head-

quarters offices and courts, there is a sub-judge's court, a post office, a dispensary, and a subordinate jail for short-term prisoners. A considerable area of rice land is irrigated from a large tank in the neighbourhood.

Godná (or *Revelganj*).—Municipal town in Sáran District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 46′ 56″ N., long. 84° 41′ 7″ E.; pop. (1872), 13,415, of whom 11,125 were Hindus and 2290 Muhammadans. Situated just above the junction of the Ganges and Gogra (Ghagrá), and built along the banks of the latter river; the largest mart in Sáran District. Its trade may be classed under two heads:—(1) Its local trade as the port of Sáran, representing also Champáran and Nepál; exports—maize, barley, peas, oil-seeds, saltpetre and sugar; imports—rice, salt, and piece-goods: (2) Its through trade between Bengal and the North-West. Revelganj is the great changing station, where the boats from Lower Bengal tranship their cargoes of rice and salt into the Faizábád (Fyzabad) and Gorakhpur boats, which give in exchange wheat, barley, pulses and oil-seeds. Several Calcutta firms are represented in the town. Municipal revenue (1876–77), £812; incidence of taxation, 1s. 2⅜d. per head; municipal police, 39 men. Dispensary, *bázár*, and fair held twice a year. The native name of this town is Godná. It is celebrated as the residence of Gautama, the founder of the school of Nyáyá philosophy or Indian logic. No traces of his dwelling exist; but a wretched hovel and a pair of shoes are still pointed out to simple pilgrims.

The commercial importance of Godná dates from the end of the last century. In 1788, Mr. Revell, collector of Government customs, was deputed to open a custom-house and *bázár* at this place. After his death he became an eponymous hero. To the present day his tomb is visited as a shrine by the market people, and his name is invoked on all occasions of calamity. The chief business done is in oil-seeds, brought down by the Gogra from the Districts of Oudh, and here transhipped into larger boats for conveyance to Patná and Calcutta. The traders are mostly agents of firms at those two cities, and they transact business on commission. The principal European firms represented are those of Messrs. Ralli and Messrs. Valetta, of Patná and Calcutta. A distinction in their course of business is observed by European and native merchants. The object of the Europeans is to use the railway at Patná to the utmost. They therefore have their oil-seeds cleaned at Patná by a special class of trained women. The rate of freight from Godná to Patná is 1 anna per bag, or Rs. 3 per 100 *maunds*; the voyage takes two days during the rainy season and three days at other times of the year. From Patná the cleaned seed is despatched by rail to Calcutta. The native merchants scarcely use the rail at all. They buy up oil-seeds when the prices are low, and store them along the river bank until they can obtain a good market at Calcutta. Then they despatch them all the way by boat, in their uncleaned state.

There are no facilities for cleaning at Godná. The freight to Calcutta varies from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 per 100 *maunds*. The voyage occupies about fifteen days during the rains and forty days in the dry weather. The native traders do not insure. They draw bills, accepted by their bankers at Calcutta, who thus become practically the insurers; for if a heavy loss is sustained, the traders fail, and the bankers have to pay.

In the year 1876-77, the total registered trade of Godná, including both imports and exports, was valued at over one million sterling. But it is admitted that great part of the imports, especially European piece-goods from Dinápur, have escaped registration altogether. Oil-seeds were imported to the amount of 559,000 *maunds*, valued at £207,000. Nearly one-half came from the District of Faizábád (Fyzabad), the rest from Bahráich, Gorakhpur, Gonda, Sítápur, and Basti. The exports of oil-seeds were 895,000 *maunds*, valued at £333,000, consigned in almost equal moieties to Patná and Calcutta. Considerably more than half the total was linseed. Food grains of all kinds were imported to the amount of 976,000 *maunds*, valued at £181,000. Wheat, pulses, and gram, and other spring crops, are received from Oudh, to be sent on to Calcutta, Patná, and the Districts of Behar. Rice is imported for local consumption to the amount of 293,000 *maunds*, chiefly from Northern Bengal. The total export of food grains was 530,000 *maunds*, valued at £110,000, chiefly wheat to Calcutta and Patná, and inferior grains to Tirhut. Salt was imported to the amount of 203,000 *maunds*, valued at £101,000, of which 140,000 *maunds* came direct from Calcutta, and the rest from Patná. The exports of salt were only 24,000 *maunds*, valued at £17,000, principally to Gorakhpur. The other articles of trade include timber, £35,000; sugar, £16,000; saltpetre, £4000.

Goghat.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 53′ 15″ N., long. 87° 44′ 50″ E. Also a station on the Chord line of the East India Railway. Recently transferred from Húglí District.

Gogo (or *Ghoghá*).—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Ahmedábád District, Bombay; situated in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, on the Gulf of Cambay, in lat. 21° 39′ 30″ N., long. 72° 21′ E., 193 miles north-west of Bombay. Pop. (1872), 9571. About three-quarters of a mile east of the town is an excellent anchorage, in some measure sheltered by the island of PERIM, which lies still farther east. The natives of this town are reckoned the best sailors or *laskars* in India; and ships touching here may procure water and supplies, or repair damages. The roadstead is a safe refuge during the south-west monsoon, or for vessels that have parted from their anchors in the Surat roads, the bottom being an entire bed of mud, and the water always smooth. Gogo has of late years lost

its commercial importance. Its rival, Bháunagar, is 8 miles nearer to the cotton districts. North of the town is a black salt marsh, extending to the Bháunagar creek. On the other sides is undulating cultivated land, sloping to the range of hills 12 miles off. South of the town there is another salt marsh. The land in the neighbourhood is inundated at high spring tides, which renders it necessary to bring fresh water from a distance of 4 or 5 miles. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1871-72—exports, £56,227; imports, £103,083.

Gogra (*Ghágra*).—The great river of Oudh. It rises in the upper ranges of the Himálayas, and, after passing through Nepál as the KAURIALA, issues from the hills at a place called Shishapáni, or the 'Crystal Waters,' where it sweeps down on the plains in a series of rapids over immense boulders which it has brought with it from the hills during the course of ages. Almost immediately after it debouches on the *tarái*, the stream splits into two, the western branch retaining the name of the Kauriála, but the eastern, known as the GIRWA, has a volume of water superior to that of the main stream. After a course of about 18 miles through the midst of fine *sál* forests, and over rough stony beds, the twin streams enter British territory in lat. 26° 27′ N., long. 82° 17′ E., a few miles distant from each other, and reunite a few miles below Bharthapur; and here the bed loses its rocky character, and becomes sandy. Almost immediately below the confluence of the Kauriála and Gírwa, the stream is joined by the Suheli from Kheri District; but it receives no other affluents of any importance until, after a southerly course of 47 miles, marking the boundary between Bahráich and Kheri, it is joined by the SARJU just above Katáighát. Below the confluence, the united stream is swelled by the Chauká and Daháwar at Bahramghát. From this point the river takes its name of the Gogra. It flows in a south-easterly and afterwards an easterly course, forming the boundary between Bahráich and Gonda on the north, and Bára Bánki and Faizábád (Fyzábád) on the south. It leaves Oudh in the west, and, marking the boundary between the North-Western Provinces Districts of Basti and Gorakhpur on the north, and Azamgarh on the south, receives the Muchora and Rápti as tributaries on its left bank. It then touches on the Bengal District of Sáran at Darauli, and finally empties itself into the Ganges at Chápra, in lat. 25° 43′ N., long. 84° 43′ 30″ E., after an estimated course of upwards of 600 miles. Many changes in the course of the river have taken place in olden times. Its waters have shown an inclination towards abandoning lateral channels, and selecting a central one, as in the well-known case of the SARDA. On both sides of the present stream are seen ancient channels of the river, and high banks within which it once flowed. There were formerly, probably, three main channels of the river, whose volumes varied each year as accidental circumstances

diverted the greater part of the water into one or other. A great inroad of the Gogra took place about 1600 A.D., which swept away the town of Khurása in Gonda. For the past century, there has been but little change in the channel beyond slight encroachments on its banks, by which villages are occasionally swept away during the rains. The old eastern and western channels have entirely silted up. The depth of the river in mid channel is nowhere less than 6 feet, but boats drawing more than 4 feet are not desirable, because they may be carried by the current on to shallows. The boats are generally clinker built, the largest carrying about 1200 *maunds* or 45 tons. They are usually without decks, the cargo being protected by mat awnings; the cost of carriage is very small. The only large town on the banks of the river is FAIZABAD (Fyzábád). A bridge of boats during the cold and hot seasons is kept up at Faizábád and Bahramghát; during the rains it is replaced by a well-served ferry; 45 other ferries are maintained at different points of the river in Oudh, and several in the North-Western Provinces.

Gohad.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India; on the road from Etáwah to Gwalior, 55 miles south-west of the former, and 28 north-east of the latter town. Lat. 26° 25′ N., long. 78° 29′ E. A fortified town, formerly the capital of a Ját chieftain, who rose into power from the position of a landholder during the troublous times at the beginning of the last century, and established himself at the expense of his neighbours. In 1779, the chief entered into alliance with the British, who assisted him in a struggle against Sindhia. Sindhia's capital was captured by a British force, and made over to the Gohad chief. Five years later, however, the position was reversed; Sindhia besieged and re-obtained possession of Gwalior fort, and also captured the capital of his enemy. In 1803, certain territorial arrangements were effected by which the town and territory of Gohad were transferred to Sindhia, and the Gohad Rána received instead the territory of DHOLPUR, which his descendants still hold. The fortifications of Gohad consist of an outer curtain of mud, faced with stone, enclosing an extensive area, between which and the citadel are two other walls. The citadel is lofty, with massive towers, and has spacious and commodious apartments. Thieffenthaler, who visited Gohad in the last century, describes it as a populous and rich place. It is now, however, much decayed.

Gohána.—Northern *tahsíl* of Rohtak District, Punjab; irrigated by the Western Jumna Canal, which affords a water supply to 35,755 acres. Pop. (1868), 119,539; persons per square mile, 352.

Gohána.—Municipal town in Rohtak District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 29° 8′ N., long. 76° 45′ E.; pop. (1868), 7124, being 3361 Hindus, 3757 Muhammadans, and 6 Síkhs. Founded about the middle of the 13th century by a Rájput and a Bania, converts to the faith of Islám, who were permitted to settle on

the present site. *Tahsíli*, police station, post office, school. Yearly fair at tomb of Sháh Ziá-ud-dín Muhammad, a saint who accompanied Muhammad Ghori in his invasion of Upper India. Two temples of the Suráogi deity, Parasnáth, where an annual festival takes place in the month of Bhadra. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £318, or 10⅜d. per head of population (7302) within municipal limits.

Gohelwár (or *Gohelwad*).—Tributary State, forming one of the five southern divisions of Káthiáwár, so named from the tribe of Gohel Rájputs by whom it is principally peopled. The State, however, is more generally known as BHAUNAGAR, from its chief town.

Gokák. — Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Belgáum District, Bombay. Lat. 16° 10′ N., long. 74° 52′ E.; 30 miles north-east of Belgáum. Pop. (1872), 12,612; municipal revenue (1874-75), £362; rate of taxation, 7d. per head. Headquarters of the chief revenue and police officers of the Subdivision, post office, and dispensary. Gokák was formerly the seat of a large dyeing and weaving industry; of late years this business has much decayed, but there is still a considerable trade in coarse paper. Toys representing figures and fruits, made of light wood, and of a particular earth found in the neighbourhood, command an extensive sale.

Gokáru. — Municipal town in North Kanara District, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 3707; municipal revenue (1874-75), £226; rate of taxation, 1s. 2d. per head. Gokáru is a place of pilgrimage frequented by Hindu devotees from all parts of India, especially by wandering pilgrims and ascetics who go round the principal shrines of the country. A fair is annually held in February, at which from 2000 to 8000 people assemble.

Gokul.—Town in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the left or eastern bank of the Jumna river. Lat. 27° 26′ N., long. 77° 46′ 30″ E.; 6 miles south-east of Muttra town. Hindu tradition regards the village as the spot where Vishnu first visited the earth in the form of Krishna. Also noted as the place where Vallabhi Swámi, a Hindu reformer of the 16th century, first preached his doctrines.

Gola.—*Tahsíl*, or Subdivision of Kheri District, Oudh. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 201,479; Muhammadans and 'others,' 19,442; total, 220,921. Area, 1051 square miles, or 672,591 acres; 262,744 acres cultivated, and 176,186 acres cultivable but not under tillage; remainder revenue-free or barren. Land revenue (1868-69), £14,936. Average assessment on total area, 5⅜d. per acre; on assesssed area, 8⅛d. per acre; on cultivated area, 1s. 1⅝d. per acre.

Gola.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh, on the road from Lakhimpur to Sháhjahánpur. Lat. 28° 4′ 40″ N., long. 80° 30′ 45″ E. Picturesquely situated at the base of a semicircle of small hills, covered for the most part with *sál* forests, with a lake to the south. The Gosáin community

has a monastic establishment here, and numerous tombs have been built in honour of its principal men. Pop. (1869), 2584. Seat of considerable sugar manufacture. Daily market, and special bi-weekly market. Seat of an important Hindu fair held twice every year, in the months of Phálgun and Chaitra, in honour of Gokarnáth Mahádeo. These fairs last for fifteen days each, and are attended by from 75,000 to 100,000 persons, pilgrims as well as traders. Estimated average annual value of trade, £10,000.

Golághát.—Subdivision in Síbságar District, Assam; containing 54 *mauzás* or village unions, and 14,826 houses. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 72,616; Muhammadans, 3528; Christians, 28; 'others,' 314; total, 76,486, viz. 39,532 males and 36,954 females. Average number of persons per *mauzá*, 1416; persons per house, 5·2. The Subdivision was constituted in 1846. In 1870-71, it contained 4 magisterial, revenue, and civil courts, together with a regular police force of 35 men; the separate cost of Subdivisional administration amounted to £2055.

Golághát.—Village in Síbságar District, Assam, and headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, on the Dhaneswari river. Lat. 26° 30′ N., long. 94° E.; pop. (1872), 1615. It is built on high ground, broken by ravines, and ranks as one of the healthiest places in Assam. Steamers are able to reach Golághát during the rainy season, and the river is navigable for small boats all the year through. In the cold weather, the Nágás from beyond the frontier come down in large numbers, bringing cotton and vegetables to barter for salt, fish, and live stock.

Golconda.—Fortress and ruined city, situated in the Nizám's Dominions, 7 miles west of Haidarábád (Hyderabad) city. Lat. 17° 22′ N., long. 78° 26′ 30″ E. In former times, Golconda was a large and powerful kingdom of the Deccan, which arose on the downfall of the Báhmani dynasty, but was subdued by Aurangzeb in 1687, and annexed to the dominions of the Delhi empire. The fortress of Golconda, situated on a rocky ridge of granite, is extensive, and contains many enclosures. It is strong and in good repair, but is commanded by the summits of the enormous and massive mausolea of the ancient kings, about 600 yards distant. These buildings, which are now the chief characteristic of the place, form a vast group, situated in an arid, rocky desert. They have suffered considerably from the ravages of time, but more from the hand of man, and nothing but the great solidity of their walls has preserved them from utter ruin. These tombs were erected at a great expense, some of them being said to have cost as much as £150,000. Golconda fort is now used as the Nizám's treasury, and also as the State prison. The diamonds of Golconda have obtained great celebrity throughout the world; but they were merely cut and polished here, being generally found at Partial, near the south-eastern frontier of the Nizám's territory.

Golconda (*Golugonda* or *Golgonda*).—Government *táluk* in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 28′ to 18° 4′ N., long. 81° 30′ to 82° 40′ E.; area, 5009 square miles, with 228 villages, 23,666 houses, and (1871) 94,782 inhabitants—viz. males, 48,763, and females, 46,019. Classified according to religion, there were in 1871—Hindus, 93,773, including 58,591 Vishnuvites and 35,164 Sivaites; Muhammadans, 987, including 822 Sunnis, 14 Shiás, and 96 Wahábís; Christians, 22. Of the villages, 113 are *rayatwárí*, or held direct from Government by the cultivators. Land revenue, £9334. This *táluk*, which contains a large tract of hill country, and about 2000 square miles of Government forest, was one of the largest and most ancient *zamíndárís* or landed estates in the District, the *zamíndárs* being relatives and feudatories of the Jáipur (Jeypore) chief. In 1836, in consequence of the murder of the Rání, the British authorities had to sequestrate the estate and imprison the *zamíndár*, and in the following year the estate was bought by Government at auction. In 1845, the *sardárs* or chiefs rose in rebellion, and held their ground for three years; and again, in 1857-58, it was found necessary to send troops against them. The *zamíndárí* has been converted into a Government *táluk* with headquarters at Narsapatam, where a strong police force under an assistant superintendent is maintained. The forests are of considerable value, and are now conserved. Also noted for the excellence of its oranges. The chief town of the *táluk*, another Golconda, is situated in lat. 17° 40′ 40″ N., and long. 82° 30′ 50″ E.

Gollagudem.—Small village on the Godávari river, in Upper Godávari District, Central Provinces. Lat. 17° 39′ N., long. 81° 1′ 30″ E. Vessels navigating the Upper Godávari take in and deliver cargo here, and travellers are permitted to occupy the small inspection bungalow belonging to the Public Works Department.

Golugonda.—*Táluk* in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* GOLCONDA.

Gomal.—Pass across the Suláimán range, from the Punjab into Afghánistán. It follows the course of the Gomal river, and is a pass of great importance, being the great highway of the Povindah trading tribes to Kábul and Kandahár.

Gonda.—A District of Oudh in the Faizábád (Fyzabad) Division or Commissionership, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between lat. 26° 46′ and 27° 50′ N., and between long. 81° 35′ and 82° 48′ E. Area (Parliamentary Return, 1877), 2824 square miles; population, according to Census of 1869, 1,166,515. In shape, the District is an irregular oblong, slightly pinched in the middle, with an extreme length of 68 and an extreme breadth of 66 miles. Bounded on the north by the lower range of the Himálayas, separating it from Nepál; on the east by Basti District;

on the south by Faizábád and Bára Bánki, the Gogra river forming the boundary line; and on the west by Bahráich.

Physical Aspects.—Gonda presents the aspect of a vast plain, with very slight undulations, studded with groves of mango trees; in parts, the large *mahuá* trees, left standing on green pasture grounds where the other jungle has been cut down, give an English park-like appearance. During the fine clear months at the end of the rainy season, the range of the Himálayas, with the towering peak of Diwálagiri in the centre, forms a magnificent background to the north. The villages, except in the north, are very small, being generally divided into a number of minute hamlets, of which over thirty will sometimes be included in a single village boundary. This may be attributed partly to a comparative freedom from the disastrous clan wars which, in other parts of Oudh, drove the villagers to congregate for the sake of security, and partly to the fact that a large part of the District has been only lately reclaimed from jungle. Throughout the District, the surface consists of a rich alluvial deposit, which is divided naturally into three great belts, known as the *tarái* or swampy tract, the *uparhár* or uplands, and the *tarhár* or wet lowlands. (1) The first of these, the *tarái*, extends from the forests on the northern boundary, and reaches southwards to a line about 2 miles south of the Rápti, running through the towns of Balrámpur and Utraula. The soil is generally a heavy clay, except in places where the rain-swollen mountain torrents which flow into the Rápti and Burí Rápti have flooded the neighbouring fields with a sandy deposit of debris from the hills. (2) The *uparhár* begins where the *tarái* ends, and extends south to a rough line drawn east and west about 2 miles below Gonda town. The soil is generally a good *domát*, or mixture of clay and sand, with occasional patches of clay. (3) The *tarhár* or wet lowland reaches from the *uparhár* to the Gogra, which forms the southern boundary of the District. The soil is a light *domát*, with an occasional excess of sand. These three belts are marvellously fertile; and there is said to be hardly an acre of land in the District which would not eventually reward patient labour. The vast tracts of barren saline efflorescence (*reh*) which are so common in the south of Oudh are quite unknown here. The chief rivers, beginning in the north, are the Burí Rápti, Rápti, Suwáwan, Kuwána, Bisúhi, Chamnái, Manwar, Tírhi, Sarju, and Gogra, all flowing from north-west to south-east. The Gogra and Rápti are alone of any commercial importance, the first being navigable throughout the year, and the latter during the rainy months. The rivers in the centre of the District are mere shallow streams in the hot weather, fringed in most places with a jungle of young *sál* trees, mixed with *mahuá*, and ending at the water's edge with a cane-brake or line of *jámun* trees. Dangerous quicksands, covered with a green coating of short grass, are

exceedingly common along the edge of the water. The whole District is studded with small shallow lakes, the water of which is largely used for irrigation, and on the margin of which grows a variety of wild rice (*tinni*), which furnishes an important article of food to the lower classes. A strip of Government reserved forest runs along the foot of the hills, the most valuable trees being the *sál* (Shorea robusta), *dhám* (Conocarpus latifolia), ebony (Diospyros melanoxylum), and Acacia catechu. The wild animals consist of tigers, leopards, bears, wolves, black antelope, deer of various kinds, and wild pigs, among large game. Snipe, jungle fowl, quail, peacock, partridges, ortolans, and pigeons, are the principal game birds. Fish are abundant in the rivers and lakes; alligators and porpoises are common.

History.—The early history of the District is centred in that of Sravasti, the modern SAHET MAHET, capital of the kingdom ruled over by Lava, the son of Ráma. After a period represented in the Vishnu Purána by fifty generations of kings, who ruled either at Sravasti or at Kapilavastu (Gorakhpur), the historical age commences (6th cent. B.C.) with King Prasenáditya, the contemporary of Buddha, and one of his early converts, who invited the Sage to Sravasti. During eight generations, Sravasti remained a principal centre of the Buddhist religion.

The kingdom reached its culminating power in the reign of the Oudh Vikramáditya, in the 2d century A.D. This monarch was a bigoted Bráhmanist; and it was perhaps through civil wars between the followers of the rival religions that his kingdom so quickly collapsed. Within thirty years of his death, the sceptre had passed to the Gupta dynasty, and this thickly populated seat of one of the most ancient kingdoms in India before long relapsed into jungle. The high road between the two capitals, Sravasti and Kapilavastu, was in the time of the Chinese pilgrim a dense forest infested with wild elephants. When it next emerges into history, the District was the seat of a Jain kingdom, which, in the hands of Sohildeo, was powerful enough to exterminate the victorious forces of Sayyid Salár, the nephew of Mahmúd of Ghazní. It was not long, however, before this dynasty shared the fate of its predecessors; and at the time of the second Muhammadan conquest, a Dom Rájá ruled Gonda with his capital at Domangarh on the Rápti, in Gorakhpur. The most famous ruler of this race was Rájá Ugrasen, who had a fort at Dumriadih in Mahádewa *pargand*. The establishment of many villages in the south of the District is traced to grants of land, generally in favour of Tharus, Doms, Bhars, and Pásís, made by this Rájá. As no similar tradition exists to the north of the Kuwána, it may be conjectured that that tract was then mainly covered with forest. This low-caste Dom kingdom was subverted in the beginning of the 14th century by the Kshattriya clans of the Kalhánsis, Janwárs, and Bisens. The

first-named tribe occupied the country from Hisámpur in Bahráich far into the interior of Gorakhpur. It is related of them that their leader Saháj Sinh, at the head of a small force, came from the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, with the army of one of the Tughlak emperors, and was commissioned by him to bring into obedience the country between the Gogra and the hills. Their first settlement was in the Koeli jungle, about 2 miles south-west of Kurása, which town subsequently gave its name to the chieftainship thus established. The thinly populated country was distributed in *jágirs* of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ *kos* each among the leading officers of the cavalry. The ruling family came to a tragic end. Rájá Achal Náráyan Sinh, having carried off the daughter of a Bráhman *zamíndár* by force, the latter sat down before the door of the oppressor's palace, and deliberately starved himself to death, after having pronounced the curse of extinction upon the Rájás, with the exception of the offspring of the youngest queen. The Bráhman's prediction was speedily fulfilled, the Rájá's palace and fortress being soon afterwards overwhelmed by the river Sarju, and himself and family drowned, save only the young queen, who was exempted from the Bráhman's avenging prediction. She afterwards gave birth to a son, whose descendants are the present Kalhánsi *zamíndárs* of Babhnipáir. The overthrow of the great Kalhánsi dynasty occurred in the latter part of the 15th century. Some time before this, however, the north of the District had been occupied by the Janwárs, whose forest kingdom comprised the whole sub-Himálayan *tarái*; and for long they divided with the Kalháns the chieftainship of the whole of the District. The overthrow of the Kalhánsi dynasty was followed by several years of anarchy. In the reign of Akbar, with the exception of Ikauná and Utraula, there were no powerful chieftains in this part of Oudh. The Kalhánsis of Babhnipáir and Guwárich were never of any considerable importance; and the rest of the District was covered with small semi-independent tribes of Bisens and Bandalghotis, and quasi-proprietary communities of Bráhmans. During the next period, the Bisens, who had been steadily rising in power for some time, consolidated the great Bisen *ráj* of Gonda, comprising a territory of 1000 square miles; the Janwárs sent out an independent branch between the Kuwána and the hills, and the large chieftainships of Balrámpur, Túlsipur, and Mánikpur were formed. For some time before the separation of Oudh from the Delhi Empire, and its erection into a separate Muhammadan kingdom under Saádat Khán, the trans-Gogra chiefs had enjoyed a virtual independence, waging wars among themselves, and exempt from any regular calls for the payment of tribute or revenue. The new Muhammadan power was vigorously resisted by the Rájá of Gonda, who defeated and slew the first of the new Governors, Aláwal Khán of Bahráich. A second force was sent against him,

and he was for a time reduced to extremities; but the arrival of reinforcements compelled the Nawáb to raise the siege, and to be satisfied with a partial submission, and a promise to pay a fixed tribute. For the next seventy years, a series of powerful Bisen chiefs retained a semi-independence, and engaged separately for the whole of their five ancestral *parganás* of Gonda, Pahárapur, Digsár, Mahádewa, and Nawábganj. It was not till the murder of Rájá Hindupat Sinh and his entire family by his hereditary enemies, the Bráhman Pándes, that the Oudh Government, by obtaining possession of his successor, a youth named Gumán Sinh, was enabled to break up the power of the Gonda principality, and to collect the revenue direct from the village head-men. Balrámpur and Túlsipur still held out for independence, and, though worsted in many fights, managed to retain their positions as chieftains, and were let off with a lump assessment on their whole estates, which left them considerable profits. The lords of Mánikpur and Babhnipáir in the same way were allowed to collect the rents in their own villages, and pay the revenue in a lump sum to the Názim. Up to the commencement of the present century, there was nothing at all in Gonda District resembling the *táluka* estates in other parts of Oudh. The hereditary chieftains were each supreme within the territorial limits of his *ráj.* As soon as Gonda and Utraula became broken up, and the revenue realized by official collectors, *tálukas* sprang into existence. The Názims found it convenient, and in some cases necessary, to let large numbers of villages to wealthy individuals as *tálukdárs*, or simple farmers of Government revenue. As a rule, these *tálukdárís* lasted but a short time, and their small collections of villages became absorbed by the Pándes, with whose power and wealth no one in the District could compete. The dispossessed Rájás of Utraula and Gonda attempted to acquire *tálukas*, and to combine the character of revenue farmer with that of feudal lord. The Rájá of Utraula succeeded for a few years, but finally had to content himself with the few villages assigned for his support. The Gonda Bisens, however, got together the magnificent estate of Bisambharpur. The exactions of the Názims, or revenue deputies of the Lucknow Court, have been described in the account of BAHRAICH. The annexation of Oudh brought relief to the people; but in making the land settlement, the first Deputy Commissioner of the District, Colonel Boileau, was killed by a notorious freebooter named Fazl Alí.

On the outbreak of the Mutiny, the Rájá of Gonda, after honourably escorting the Government treasure to Faizábád (Fyzabad), threw in his lot with the rebels, and joined the standard of the Begam of Oudh at Lucknow. The Rájá of Balrámpur remained loyal throughout the struggle. He steadily declined to recognise the rebel Government, received and protected Sir C. Wingfield, the Commissioner of Gonda

and Bahráich, together with other English officers, in his fort, and afterwards forwarded them safely, under a strong escort, to Gorakhpur. The Gonda Rájá, after the relief of Lucknow, fixed his camp at Lampti on the Chamnái river, with a force said to amount to 20,000 men, who were, however, dispirited at the English successes elsewhere. After only a very feeble resistance, the broken remnants of his forces were swept across the Rápti and over the lower range of the Himálayas into Nepál. Most of the rebel *tálukdárs* accepted the amnesty, but neither the Rájá of Gonda nor the Rání of Túlsipur could be induced to come in (although the conduct of the former throughout the Mutiny had been free from overt crime); and their estates were accordingly confiscated and conferred as rewards upon Mahárájá Dig Bijái Sinh of Balrámpur and Mahárájá Sir Mán Sinh of Sháhganj.

Population.—The population of Gonda District, according to the Census of 1869, amounted to 602,862 males and 563,653 females; total, 1,166,515, dwelling in 2834 villages or townships, and 219,090 houses; average pressure of the population on the soil, 413 per square mile. The Hindus number 1,049,397, or 89 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 117,070, or 11 per cent.; Christians (European, Eurasian, and native), 48. The Bráhmans are the most numerous caste, numbering 203,149, or 18 per cent. of the total population. They are almost all of the Sarwáriá sept, but with a slight sprinkling of Gaurs, Kanaujias, and Sakaldwipis. The Gonda Bráhmans have long been noted for their military spirit; and they formed one of the most important elements in the forces of the great Bisen Rájás. With the exception of the Patháns of Utraula, the ruling classes are everywhere Kshattriyás, of which the principal families are the Kalháns of Babhnipáir and Chhedwára, the Bisens of Gonda and Mánikpur, the Bandalghotis of Mánikpur and Nawábganj, the Janwárs of Balrámpur, and Goráha Bisens of Mahádewa. These Rájput castes number 49,313. The great cultivating castes are the Ahírs, 122,106; Korís, 110,916; and Kurmís, 92,321. The Kahárs, mostly servants and palanquin-bearers, number 44,978. The remnants of aboriginal tribes comprise the Tharus, Bhars, Doms, Pásis, Araks, and Khatiks and Náts. Of these, the first three are the pioneers of cultivation. Settling along the edge of the jungle, they clear the trees and prepare the land for tillage, only to leave it, when the task is accomplished, to the steadier industry of the Kurmí or the Ahír. The Barwárs are a predatory tribe of Hindus, who spread over the country in gangs of 40 or 50; they have no scruple in robbing temples, but will not steal cattle. The Muhammadans are most influential, and most numerous in proportion to the Hindus, in the old Pathán estate of Utraula, where they form the majority of the village proprietors; as common cultivators they are very thick all over the north of the District. Their religion is strongly intermingled with

Hinduism, and the services of the Bráhman astrologer are held in high estimation by high and low. Five towns in the District contain a population exceeding 5000—viz. GONDA, pop. 11,966; BALRAMPUR, 13,878; COLONELGANJ, 9788; NAWABGANJ, 6141; and UTRAULA, 5988,—all of which see separately. The above, together with Kátrá and Khargupur, are municipalities; total municipal income, £2375. The different villages and townships are thus classified:—1005 contain less than 200 inhabitants; 1079, from 200 to 500; 542, from 500 to 1000; 152, from 1000 to 2000; 35 from 2000 to 5000; and 5 upwards of 5000 inhabitants. The principal places of pilgrimage are the temple of Pateswari Debi at DEBI PATAN, the *thákurdwára* of the new Vaishnavi sect at CHHIPIA, and the temples of Baleswarnáth Mahádeo in Mahádewa, Karnanáth Mahádeo at Machhligáon, Bijleswarí Debi at Balrámpur, and Pacharanáth and Pritwináth at Khargupur.

Agriculture. — Rice, wheat, and barley are the chief agricultural staples, comprising more than one-half the total cultivated area of the District. There are three harvests—the *kharíf*, the *henwát*, and the *rabí* — of which the relative importance varies in different parts of the District. In the centre tableland, the *rabí*, and in the north, the *henwát*, are most depended upon. In the south, the *kharíf*, when the rains are moderate, yields a magnificent crop of Indian corn; and excessive rains, while they are fatal to that particular crop, leave a fair crop of rice, and secure an abundant wheat harvest for the *rabí*. Ploughing for the *kharíf* begins at the end of May, and continues throughout June; the seed is sown in the beginning of July, and cutting commences in September, or, in the case of rice, even earlier. By the middle of October, all the autumn crops are off the ground. Land for the *henwát* or Christmas crop is ploughed at the commencement of the rains, and the sowing continues during the growth of the *kharíf*. In the case of transplanted rice (*jarhan*), the planting out is done at the beginning of August, and the cutting continues throughout November. In the middle of December, the cutting of the oil-seeds commences, and lasts till the first week of January. Preparations for the next year's spring crop commence before the rains set in; and in the case of wheat, the first ploughing generally takes place in June. At the end of August, the field receives two or three more ploughings, and a last ploughing in September. Sowing takes place in October and November, and the crop is cut early in March. April is occupied in threshing and winnowing. The total cultivated area of the District is returned at 993,858 acres, but including land bearing two crops, 1,311,469 acres are cultivated yearly. The acreage under the seven principal crops in 1874 was as follows:— Rice, 408,171; wheat, 190,468; barley, 108,200; *joár*, 95,035; *arhár*, 85,519; *kodo*, 59,844; *alsi*, 52,910. Irrigation is largely practised, the area watered in 1874

being returned at 429,280 acres, of which 137,369 acres were watered from tanks, 147,852 from rivers, and 144,059 from wells. Prices of food grains do not range quite so high in Gonda as in other Districts; but they are higher than might be expected from the scanty population, owing mainly to the great facilities for export afforded by the Gogra. Prices have considerably risen of late years. Between the ten years 1861-70, the rates for unhusked rice rose from 2s. 2d. to 3s. 6½d. a cwt.; common husked rice from 4s. 2d. to 6s. 7d.; wheat, from 3s. 3d. to 5s. 9d.; barley, from 1s. 11d. to 4s. 7d.; *bájra*, from 3s. 9d. to 4s. 7d.; *joár*, from 1s. 11d. to 3s. 10d.; gram, from 2s. 6d. to 4s. 2d.; *arhár*, from 4s. 2d. to 5s. 6d.; *urid*, from 3s. 9d. to 8s. 6d.; *múg*, from 5s. 9d. to 7s. 6d.; *musuri*, from 2s. 3d. to 4s. 7d. a cwt. Prices, however, ranged unusually high in 1870, as the District had not recovered from the effects of the scarcity in the previous year. The famine of 1874 was severely felt, and Government relief works on a large scale were undertaken. Gonda is pre-eminently a District of large landed proprietors; 21 *tálukdárs* are returned as in the possession of estates covering 1,341,448 acres, and including 1993 whole villages and 199 shares; 875 villages or shares are held on ordinary tenure by small proprietors. The principal estates are those of the Mahárájá of Balrámpur, with 568,188 acres; Rájá Krishna Datt Rám Pánde, 226,871 acres; and Mahárájá Mán Sinh, 201,734 acres. The *táluká* estates are assessed at a total Government revenue of £127,726, or an average of 1s. 10½d. per acre over the entire area; while the small proprietors are assessed at £42,212, on a total area of 408,030 acres, or an average of 2s. 1d. per acre. The apparent advantage on the side of the *tálukdárs* is due to the fact, that the Mahárájá of Balrámpur holds the whole of the thinly populated and poorly cultivated plains of Túlsipur; and also one-tenth of the entire assessment of Balrámpur has been remitted as a reward for loyal services. As a rule, consideration has been had for coparcenary bodies of village proprietors, who have been assessed lower in proportion to the area of cultivated land in their possession than the large individual landholders. The cultivating classes are well-to-do and independent; and, owing to the thinness of its population and the considerable area of fertile waste land, Gonda enjoys almost complete freedom from the worst forms of poverty. The system of cultivating land by means of Sáwaks or bondsmen, as described in BAHRAICH DISTRICT, is also common here.

Communications, Trade, Commerce, etc.—The three principal lines of road are—from Faizábád (Fyzabad) to Gonda town, 28 miles; from Nawábganj to Utraula, 36 miles; and from Nawábganj to Colonelganj, 35 miles. The minor roads are—Gonda to Begamganj, 16 miles; Gonda to Bahráich, 16 miles; Gonda to Utraula; Gonda to Colonelganj, 29 miles; Gonda to Balrámpur, 28 miles; Colonelganj to Mahárájganj,

11 miles; Colonelganj to Bahráich, 8 miles; Utraula to Túlsipur, 16 miles; Khargupur to Chaudhári Dih, 31 miles; Balrámpur to Ikauna, 14 miles. Rice and food grains are the chief exports; and cotton, European piece-goods, and salt the principal imports.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, aided by 2 European Assistants, and 1 or more extra Assistants. The courts number 15 magisterial and 22 revenue and civil. The total imperial revenue of Gonda in 1871-72 amounted to £138,795, of which £122,234 was derived directly from the land. The imperial expenditure in the same year amounted to £32,101, of which, however, one-half, or £15,385, was on account of the Settlement Department, which has now ceased its operations. By 1875-76 the revenue amounted to £157,349, of which the land contributed £135,509; the expenditure in that year amounted to £15,810. The regular police force in 1873 consisted of 484 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £6655; the village watch numbered 3271 men, costing £11,898 from local sources; and municipal police 146, costing £783. During 1873, 2530 cases were sent by the police to the magistrates, in which convictions were obtained in 1842. Female infanticide is common in Aija and Colonelganj *thánás.* Efforts have been made to stamp out this crime; but in 1874, in 52 'proclaimed' villages, the proportion of females to every 100 males was only 72. Education is still in its infancy, but village schools are now springing up in all directions. In 1875-76, there were 116 schools under Government inspection, attended by 5879 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual rainfall of the District during the eleven years 1865-75 was 42 inches; the highest fall in any one year was 68·7 inches in 1871, the lowest is reported at 6·10 inches for 1874. The heavy rains commence early in June, and continue, with slight interruptions, to the end of September or middle of October. Showers fall in every month of the year, and particularly in February and March. Owing to the proximity of the hills, the rains are more assured, and less subject to violent variations than in more southerly Districts. The average monthly temperature for the three years ending 1875 is thus returned—January 62° F., February 64°, March 75°, April 82°, May 91°, June 87°, July 87°, August 86°, September 81°, October 80°, November 70°, December 64°; yearly average, 77·5° F. The highest recorded range of the thermometer is 106°, lowest 48° F. Fever is very prevalent in the *tarái parganá* of Túlsipur during the drying up of the rains, and is also common throughout the District. The other principal diseases are scurvy, cholera, diarrhœa, and goitre.

Gonda.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Bahráich and Balrámpur *tahsíls*, on the east by Utraula *tahsíl*, on the south by Begamganj *tahsíl*, and on the west by Hisámpur and

Bahráich *tahsíls.* Area, 632 square miles, of which 392 are cultivated; pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent transfers), 247,107 Hindus, 23,970 Musalmáns—total, 271,077, viz. 139,322 males and 131,755 females; number of villages or towns, 780; average density of population, 546 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the two *parganás* of Gonda and Pahárapur.

Gonda.—*Parganá* in *tahsíl* and District of the same name, Oudh. Bounded on the north by the Kuwána river, which divides it from Balrámpur and Utraula *parganás;* on the east by Sadullánagar and Mánikpur; on the south by Mahádewa, Digsár, Guwárich, and Pahárpur *parganás;* and on the west by Bahráich District. The history of the *parganá* is identical with that of the District (*vide supra*). In appearance the *parganá* is a large, fairly well-wooded plain, with hardly perceptible undulations. In the north are some rather extensive *sál* jungles, but the trees are not of sufficient size to be of much value. Excepting these jungle tracts, the whole *parganá* is under high cultivation, and produces luxuriant crops of wheat, rice, sugar, gram, Indian corn, and barley. Groves of *mahuá* trees are dotted all over the *parganá.* The soil is generally a light and fertile loam. Water is obtainable at a depth of from 15 to 20 feet, and irrigation is much practised. Area, 509 square miles, of which 314 square miles, or 201,300 acres, are under cultivation; 130,450 acres yield spring and 113,920 autumn crops; while 56,850 bear a double harvest. At the time of British annexation, a summary investigation was made into the assets of the *parganá;* and on the principle of taking half as the Government share, the land revenue was fixed at £25,500. A revised assessment was made in 1869-70, when a thirty years' settlement was effected at an assessment of £42,404, equal to an average of 4s. 2⅛d. per acre of cultivated area, or 2s. 7½d. per acre of total area. This increase of upwards of 66 per cent. probably represents, with some approach to accuracy, the rapid extension of cultivation during fifteen years of undisturbed peace. Of the 652 villages comprising the *parganá,* 461, paying a revenue of £33,531, are held by *tálukdárs;* and 182, paying a revenue of £8893, are held by independent *zamíndárs.* Pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent changes), 247,107 Hindus, 23,970 Muhammadans — total, 271,077, viz. 139,322 males and 131,755 females; average density of population, 524 per square mile. The Bráhmans are by far the most numerous caste, numbering 60,713, or nearly one-fourth of the entire population. They belong, almost without exception, to the great Sarwariá division, and retain no tradition of their first settlement in the District, of which it is probable that they are among the most ancient inhabitants. Next to the Bráhmans in point of number come the low-caste Korís (28,458), Kurmís (26,288), and Ahírs (18,699). The semi-monastic

order of Gosáins numbers 2143 members, some of whom are wealthy landed proprietors. The most peculiar tribe in the *parganá* are the Barwárs, who are said to have migrated from Basti about 200 years ago. Their distinguishing profession is theft, which they carry on with great success, though the rules of their religion sternly restrict their operations to the period between sunrise and sunset. Any one stealing by night is at once turned out of caste. The Barwárs go on distant plundering expeditions in parties of two or three, and on their return the proceeds are impartially divided, a share being set apart to buy sacrificial offerings of goats and ardent spirits to Devi, and a percentage being paid to the *zamíndár* of the village. A police Census returns the number of this caste at 2449 of all ages and sexes in this *parganá*. They have now been brought under the Criminal Tribes Act. The principal market villages are Gonda town, Jigna, Dhángpur, Dubha, Rájgarh, and Khargupur. Principal exports, wheat and rice; imports insignificant, consisting of salt, brass vessels, and English cotton cloth. Metalled road from Gonda town to Faizábád (Fyzabad), and several other unmetalled roads and cart tracks.

Gonda.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Gonda District, Oudh; situated 28 miles north-north-west of Faizábád (Fyzabad). Lat. 27° 7′ 30″ N., long. 82° E. The site on which the town now stands was originally a jungle on the estate of the Rájás of Kurása, in the centre of which was a cattle-fold (Gontha or Gothám) where the Ahírs enclosed their cattle at night as a protection against wild beasts, from which the town derived its name. Rájá Mán Sinh of Kurása built a palace and fortress here, and it has since been the residence of his successors, under whom the town gradually grew up. As mentioned in the account of GONDA DISTRICT, the last Rájá of Gonda at the time of the Mutiny threw in his cause with the rebels, and his large estates were confiscated. The population of the town and civil station in 1869 was returned at 13,722. The place is not now noted for any manufacture, but in the days of native rule was celebrated for its shields, which were in great request. It is not a commercial centre, nor is it of any religious importance to either Hindus or Muhammadans. The principal buildings in the native town are—2 *thákurdwárás*; the palace, which for some hundreds of years formed the residence of the Gonda Rájás, but is now falling into decay; a handsome *sarái* or rest-house; and a large masonry tank known as the Rádhákund. North-west of the native town, and between it and the civil station, are the civil dispensary and District school, two fine buildings. Beyond these is a large handsome artificial lake, constructed by Rájá Seo Prasád, and surrounded by groves of tall mango trees and ornamental grounds. On the bank of the lake is a Literary Institute, known as the Anjumán-i-rifah, supported by European and native subscribers, and containing

an extensive library. Beyond the Ságar or lake are the civil lines, and what were formerly the cantonments. The troops were withdrawn in 1863; and the only traces of the military occupation of this quarter now left are the barracks, which up till recently were occupied as the civil court buildings, a church which has been reduced in size to suit the requirements of the small civil station, a burial-ground, racquet court, and a Government garden, which is carefully kept up, and forms one of the finest pleasure-grounds in Oudh. On what was the parade grounds the handsome new court-house now stands, and south of it the jail. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £799; expenditure, £679; average incidence of taxation, 9½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Gonda.—Town in Partábgarh District, Oudh; 2 miles from Belá, on the road from Allahábád to Faizábád (Fyzabad). Lat. 27° 7′ 30″ N., long. 82° E.; pop. (1869), 1540 Hindus, 523 Muhammadans—total, 2063. Said to have been founded by the Gonds. Hindu temple, Government school. Large *bázár*, with annual sales amounting to about £1500. Two fairs are held annually in honour of the tutelary goddess, Asht Bhují Devi, each attended by about 2500 people.

Gondál.—Native State in Káthiáwár, Province of Guzerat, Bombay. Area, 699 square miles; 180 villages; estimated pop. (1876), 137,217; estimated gross revenue, £88,000. With the exception of the Atam Hills, the country is generally flat. The soil is chiefly black. Several small streams intersect the State, the largest, the Bhádar, being navigable by small boats during the rains. For purposes of irrigation, water is drawn in leather bags from wells and rivers by means of bullocks. The climate is good. Products—cotton and grain. Manufactures—cotton cloth, and silver and gold cord. There are a few miles of made road between Gondál and Rájkot, but for the rest, internal communication is carried on by the ordinary country tracks. The produce is exported from Mángrol, Veráwal, and Juriá. There are 37 schools, with 1716 pupils. Gondál ranks as a second-class State among the many States in Káthiáwár. The ruler entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. He is a Hindu, a Rájput by caste of the Járejá family. The name of the present Chief is Bhagwátsinhjí Sagrámji, and his title Thákur Sáhib. He is at present (1876) a minor of eleven years of age, and is being educated at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. The State of Gondál pays a tribute of £11,218 in all to the British Government, the Gáekwár of Baroda, and the Nawáb of Junágarh. The family holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption, but the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. During the minority of the present chief, the State is administered by a British officer, styled Assistant Political Agent. The chief has power to try his own subjects for capital offences only. His military force consists of 198 cavalry, and 659 infantry and police, with 16 cannon.

Gondál.—Capital of Gondál State, in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 57′ 30″ N., long. 70° 53′ E.; estimated pop. 13,180. The town is fortified.

Gond-umri.—Estate in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; 5 to 10 miles north-east of Sángarh; containing 10 small villages, the largest of which, Gond-umri, possesses an indigenous school, and much valueless jungle. Area, 17,715 acres, of which only 2862 are cultivated; pop. (1870), 2282, chiefly Gonds and Dhers. The chief is a Bráhman.

Gondwána.—Tract of country, Central Provinces; so called from the aboriginal tribe of Gonds who principally inhabit it.—*See* CENTRAL PROVINCES.

Goomsar.—*Táluk* and town, Ganjám District, Madras.—*See* GUMSAR.

Goona (*Gúna*).—Tract of country in Central India, comprising the States of RAGHUGARH and PARONE (known as the Goona Agency).

Gooriattum.—*Táluk* and town in North Arcot District, Madras.—*See* GUDIATHAM.

Gooty (*Gúti*).—Town in Bellary District, Madras; 48 miles from Bellary town. Lat. 15° 6′ 53″ N., long. 77° 41′ 32″ E.; containing (1871) 1388 houses and 6730 inhabitants. Headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name; municipality; courts of the joint and sub-magistrate, and District *munsiff* or civil judge; post and telegraph offices; sub-jail; and important railway station, 257 miles from Madras, which was opened in 1869. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £526; expenditure, £608; incidence of municipal taxation, 7¼d. per head. The fort of Gooty, built in the early part of the 16th century, was a place of immense strength, and was the stronghold of the great Marhattá guerilla chief, Morári Ráo, who joined Clive in 1751 on the relief of Arcot. Originally belonging to a dependant of the Vijáyanagar family, it formed one of the conquests of Mír Jumlá. It was afterwards held by the Patháns of Cuddapah and Sawanúr, from whom it was wrested in 1714 by the Gauripur family of Marhattás, the most distinguished of whom obtained, in 1744, the Nizám's recognition of his territory as a Marhattá State. In 1776, Haidar Alí beseiged the town, which was forced to capitulate after a siege of four months, the water-supply being exhausted. Haidar used this fortress as his *point d'appui* in several expeditions against the neighbouring *poligárs*. Gooty was captured by the British in the campaign of 1799.

Wilks describes the fort as follows:—'The fort is composed of a number of strong works, occupying the summits of a circular cluster of rocky hills, connected with each other, and enclosing a level space which forms the site of the town. The town is approached from the plain by a single fortified gateway on the south-west, and by two small footpaths across the lower hills, communicating through small sally-

ports. An immense smooth rock, rising from the northern limit of the circle, and fortified by gradations surmounted by 14 gateways, overlooks and commands the whole of the other works, and forms a citadel which famine or treachery alone can reduce. The rock is composed of granite, in which red felspar prevails. Its extreme height above the sea has been ascertained to be 2171 feet, but notwithstanding this, the heat in April and May is intense. Its height above the plain is 989 feet. On the summit of the hill are several wells and reservoirs for water, and various buildings where State prisoners were at one time confined.' On one of the bastions overlooking a precipice of about 300 feet, is a small building, called Morári Ráo's seat. Here the Marhattá chieftain was wont to sit and play chess, watching at the same time all that was going on in the town below, or as a spectator of prisoners being hurled from the top of an adjoining precipice and dashed to pieces on the rocks. Besides the fort, the most interesting features in Gooty are the tomb and memorial well of Sir T. Munro, who died at Pallikonda in 1827.

Gopálgánj.—Town in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated on the Madhumati river in lat. 23° 0′ 22″ N., long. 89° 52′ E.; pop. (1870) estimated at about 2000. Famous for jute, rice, salt, clarified butter, and the manufacture of *sitálpati* mats of fine quality.

Gopálnagar.—Town in Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 3′ 50″ N., long. 88° 48′ 40″ E. One of the principal seats of commerce, trade being chiefly carried on by means of permanent markets.

Gopálpur (*Gopaulpore*).—Town in Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 21′ 5″ N., long. 85° 1′ E.; distant 5 miles south-east of Berhampur, the chief town of the District, of which it forms the seaport. A place of rapidly increasing importance. Pop. (1871), 2416, residing in 509 houses. In 1875-76, Gopálpur was visited by 158 ships of 139,836 tons burden. It has a considerable export trade to Europe in grain, myrobalans, hemp, horns, hides, and seeds. French and English vessels load here. It is also a port of call for the coasting steamers. The number of registered boats in 1875-76 was 95. Value of exports (1875-76), £290,987; imports, £161,141. The port light (fixed white) is displayed at an elevation of 80 feet, and is visible from 8 to 10 miles at sea; good anchorage (sand and mud) is found in 8 to 9 fathoms about 1½ mile off shore. Post office; staging bungalow.

Gopálswámi-betta ('*Hill of the shepherd god, Vishnu*').—Isolated peak, forming a spur of the Western Gháts, in Mysore District, Mysore State; about 4500 feet above sea level. Lat. 11° 43′ 20″ N., long. 76° 37′ 45″ E. Crowned with fortifications, said to have been erected by the Danáyak brothers in the 12th century. On the summit stands a temple of Vishnu, attended by two Bráhmans, at which a car festival is held annually.

Gopámau.—*Parganá* in Hardoi *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Mansurnagar and Piháni *parganás*; on the east by the Gumti river, separating it from Chandra, Misrikh, and Aurangábád *parganás*; on the south by Sandíla and Bálamau *parganás*; and on the west by Bangar, Báwan, and Sára *parganás*, the Sái river marking the boundary for a considerable distance. The earliest traditions show the Thatherás as possessors of this tract, which they still held in 1033 A.D. at the time of Sayyid Sálar Masáúd's invasion. A great battle was fought near Gopámau between the Musalmáns and the Thatherás, in which the former were successful; but two years afterwards, on the defeat of Sayyid Sálar at Bahráich, his army of occupation at Gopamau was overpowered and put to the sword. The Thatherás remained masters for some time, when they were ousted by an Ahban chief, named Gopi or Gopál Sinh, who founded the present town of GOPAMAU. On the overthrow of the Hindu, Delhi, and Kanauj kingdoms by Shahab-ud-dín in 1193 and 1194 A.D., the several Kshattriya clans poured into the trans-Ganges Districts, and effected fresh settlements. The Shaikhs obtained a footing in the *parganá* in Humáyun's reign, when two Musalmáns were appointed *kazís* of Gopamau; and a descendant still holds the Kasmandi estate. The *parganá* forms the watershed of the Gumti and Sái rivers. Round Tandiáon, in the heart of the *parganá*, is all that now remains of the great Bangar jungle, which up to our annexation (1856) was a robber-haunted tract, which all the efforts of the king's troops could not reduce to order. Area, 328 square miles, of which 172 are cultivated. Staple products—barley, *bájra*, and wheat, which occupy three-fifths of the cultivated area. Government land revenue, £17,544; average incidence, 3s. 3d. per acre of cultivated area; and 1s. 8d. per acre of total area. Of the 240 villages constituting the *parganá*, 145 are owned by Rájputs, the Ahbans slightly predominating; Káyasths hold 36½ villages; Bráhmans, 2½; and grantees, 10. Muhammadans possess 46 villages. Only 28½ villages are held under *tálukdárí* tenure, 111½ are *zamíndárí*, 95 *pattidárí*, and 5 *bhayáchára*. Population (1869), Hindus, 103,338; Musalmáns, 8668; total, 112,006, viz. 60,476 males and 51,530 females; average density of population, 341 per square mile. The most numerous castes are Chamárs and Pásís, who form a third of the entire population. Bráhmans and Rájputs are each about a tenth. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs along the eastern side of the *parganá*; the Gumti in the east provides water communication; and the Sítápur and Mehndighát road runs along the south. In the interior, however, the only road is the Hardoi and Sítápur road, with a branch northward to Gopámau, Majhia, and Piháni. Five schools, of which two are for girls.

Gopámau.—Principal town in the *parganá* of the same name,

Hardoi District, Oudh; 2 miles west of the Gumti river, 14 miles north-east of Hardoi town, and 20 west of Sítápur. Lat. 27° 32′ N., long. 80° 19′ 40″ E. The town is said to have been founded in the 11th century by an Ahban chief named Rájá Gopi, who drove out the Thatheras from what was then a mere clearing in the forest. The Muhammadan population dates from the invasion of Oudh by Sayyid Sálar (A.D. 1033); since which date it has always been an important seat of Musalmán influence. The chief development of the town took place in the reign of Humáyun, who first appointed a *chaudhári* and *kázi* for the *parganá*, with their headquarters in the town. Till 1801, when Saádat Alí removed the headquarters of the *parganá* to Tandiáon, Gopamau seems to have thriven. Many of its residents attained high posts under the empire, and contributed to the wealth and importance of the town. Numerous mosques, wells, and large buildings attest its importance in the days of Musalmán supremacy. In 1869, the town contained a population of 2984 Muhammadans and 2965 Hindus; total, 5949, dwelling in 1614 houses, of which 1318 are of mud and 296 of masonry. Two bi-weekly markets; Government school. The only manufacture is one peculiar to the place, the making of *arsis*, or thumb-mirrors of silver.

Gorá.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the river Rápti, 1 mile west of Barhaj. Lat. 26° 33′ N., long. 83° 50′ 30″ E. Area, 103 acres; pop. (1872), 5482.

Gorábázár.—The southern suburb of Barhampur town, Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 5′ 15″ N., long. 88° 17′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 4903, chiefly Musalmáns and Urdu-speaking immigrants from the north-west. An annual fair called Chaltia *melá* is held here in honour of Raghunáth, attended by about 20,000 people.

Gorághát.—A ruined city in Dinájpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 15′ N., long. 89° 20′ E. Once the capital of the eastern Mughal Government, with a revenue-circle of 90 *lákhs* of rupees (£900,000). The capital was afterwards removed to Dacca by the Emperor Jahángír. The site of Gorághát is now a vast mass of ruins buried in dense jungle, on the west bank of the Karátoyá river.

Gorai.—River of Bengal.—*See* GARAI.

Gorakhpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 5′ 15″ and 27° 28′ 45″ N. lat., and between 83° 7′ and 84° 29′ E. long.; with an area of 4578 square miles, and a population in 1872 of 2,019,361 persons. Gorakhpur is a District in the Benares Division. It is bounded on the north by the territory of Nepál, on the east by Champáran and Sáran, on the south by the river Gogra, and on the west by Basti and Faizábád (Fyzabad).

Physical Aspects.—The District of Gorakhpur lies immediately south

of the lower Himálayan slopes, but forms itself a portion of the great alluvial plain, derived from the detritus of the mountain region, and deposited by the mighty rivers which take their rise amid the snow-clad northern heights. No greater elevation than a few sandhills breaks the monotony of its level surface. It is, however, closely intersected by numerous rivers and streams, and dotted over with lakes and marshes. The water supply is abundant, and the moisture of the soil gives a verdant appearance to the country, which contrasts strongly with the arid aspect of the Districts south of the Gogra. In the north and centre, extensive tracts of *sál* forest diversify the scene; the trees in which are not, as a rule, of any great size, but the density and extent of the woodland strikes the eye of a visitor from the populous and highly cultivated Districts farther south. Immediately below the first range of hills stretches the *tarái* or lowland, a tract of sub-montane character, with clear and rapid streams, flowing through a thickly wooded forest region. Here and there, glades used for pasturage open out among the wilder portions, and the cultivated patches are generally devoted to the growth of rice. The inhabitants are either hillmen like the Gurkhás and Nepális, or else aboriginal Thárus, who alone can live in the *tarái* during the rains, when its pestilential climate drives away all other tribes. The snowy range can be distinctly seen from the frontier. As we move southward, the forest disappears, and we enter a well-tilled plain, only broken by occasional woods or rare tracts of the saline waste known as *usár*. In the south of the District, the general expanse of cultivation is diversified by shady mango groves, or intersected by frequent lakes. The west and south-west are low-lying plains, subject to extensive inundations. In seasons of heavy rain, the water collects in the valley of the Ami, and, joining the lakes to the east, forms an immense inland sea. Beyond the Rápti, the ground rises slightly, but again sinks towards the south-east, and slopes away as it reaches the border of the District. The principal rivers are—the RAPTI, a tortuous torrent, with a very shifting channel; the GOGRA, a large stream, with a volume of water here surpassing that of the Ganges, navigable by steamers during the rains, and never fordable in the driest weather; the GREAT GANDAK, a clear and rapid river, full of cataracts and whirlpools, and navigable with difficulty on account of its fierce current and sunken snags; the LITTLE GANDAK, the Kuána, the Rohin, the Ami, and the Gunghi. The principal lakes are the Rámgarh, Nandaur, Nawar, Bhenri, Chillua, and Amiyar Táls. The tiger is found in the north, and the jackal, wolf, fox, and wild boar throughout the District; deer are rare. Wild-fowl of all kinds abound on the larger lakes, which are also well stocked with fish. The latter afford a livelihood to numerous boatmen (*málás*), who rent a lake of the landholder and then fish it in concert.

History.—The tract of country north of the river Gogra and between Oudh and Behar, which now forms the Districts of Gorakhpur and Basti, was originally included in the ancient kingdom of Kosála, of which Ajodhya was the capital. It was visited by the mythical hero Ráma, whose death may be placed at about 750 B.C. Gautama Buddha, the founder of the wide-spread religion which bears his name, was born at Kapila just beyond the border, and died at Kasia within this District. A colossal statue still marks the place of his decease. Gorakhpur thus became the headquarters of the new creed, and was one of the first tracts to receive it. Tradition further recounts, that a prince belonging to the solar dynasty of Ajodhya attempted to found here a great city which should rival the glories of Kási (or Benares); but that when it was nearly completed, he was overwhelmed by an irruption of the Thárus and Bhars. These aboriginal and mixed races held all the country north-east of Oudh and the Ganges for a long period, and drove out the Aryans who had at first conquered them. Their reappearance was apparently connected with the rise of the Buddhist faith. The Bhar chieftains seem to have held the country at first independently, and afterwards as vassals of the Magadha Buddhists. On the fall of that dynasty, the Bhars regained their autonomy till about 550 A.D. From this time, the Aryans began to recover their lost ground; and in 600 A.D., the Rahtors of Kanauj invaded the District, which they conquered up to the modern town of Gorakhpur. Hioueng Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, who visited this part of India about the year 630, notices the large number of monasteries and towers, the latter a monument of the continuous struggle between the aboriginal Bhars and their Aryan antagonists, the Rahtors. In about 900 A.D., the Domhatárs or military Bráhmans made their first appearance on the scene, and, with other tribes of mixed Bráhman and Rájput descent, began to push up from the south and to dispossess the Rahtor chiefs, whom they expelled from the town of Gorakhpur. In the 11th century, Bisen Sen of Nagar became the leading chief in this region; but the Bhars continued to hold the western tracts, until ousted by the Jáipur (Jeypore) Rájás in the time of Akbar. Early in the 14th century, the Rájputs, expelled from the country farther west by the Muhammadans, began to enter this District. Dhúr Chánd established himself in Dhúriápár, and Chandra Sen in Satási. The latter murdered the Domhatár chief of Domangarh (the Gorakhpur fort), seized his stronghold, and established himself in the city. During the whole century, the Batwal and Bánsi Rájás carried on an incessant warfare, which desolated the whole country; and from 1350 to 1450, the Satási and the Majholi Rájás waged war without intermission. The present town of Gorakhpur was founded about 1400. A century later, the Majholi family held

the south-east; the descendants of Dhúr Chánd reigned in the south-west; the Aonla and Satási Dominions came next; while the extreme north-west belonged to the principality of Batwal. All these Rájás seem to have been quite independent of one another, and isolated from the outer world, as no bridges or roads attest any intercourse with the Districts to the south or east. Until the Mughal period, the Musalmáns do not appear to have crossed the Gogra; but in 1576, Akbar passed across it on his return from the successful expedition against Dáúd Khán of Bengal. The Emperor's general, Fidái Khán, defeated all the Rájás who opposed him, and occupied Gorakhpur. Bahádur Sháh visited the District for the sake of its sport during the lifetime of Aurangzeb; but until the establishment of the Nawáb Wazírs of Oudh at Lucknow in 1721, the Musalmáns interfered very little with Gorakhpur, and allowed it to be controlled entirely by the native Rájás. After Saádat Alí's accession, however, a firmer grasp of the District was taken; and in 1750, a large army under Alí Kásim Khán reduced it completely to submission. Even then the Muhammadan governor exercised no real power, and collected what revenue he could obtain through the Rájás, who carried on war amongst themselves as they pleased. At the middle of the 18th century, the Banjáras had become a perfect scourge to the District. They first appeared from the west about 1725; but thirty years later, united under able leaders, they were formidable enough to contend with chiefs like the Rájá of Bánsi. They kept the eastern *parganás* in a constant state of terror, and weakened the power of the Rájás so greatly that the latter could no longer resist the fiscal exactions of the Oudh officials, who plundered and ravaged the country to an extent which they had never ventured to attempt in its more independent days. After the battle of Baxar in 1764, a British officer received command of the Nawáb's troops, and was instructed to collect the taxes of Gorakhpur; but all he could do was to sub-let the collection to native revenue farmers, who rack-rented the cultivators in a merciless manner. The District formed part of the territory ceded by Oudh to the British under the treaty of 1801; and an officer was immediately put in charge of the country now divided between the Districts of Gorakhpur, Azamgarh, and Basti. Efforts were made to bring this extensive region under a firmly organized Government, and the revenue was reduced from time to time, to meet the needs of the landholders. An invasion of the Nepális in 1813 was successfully repulsed; and the District was happily free from the incidents of history until the Mutiny of 1857. It was then lost for a short time at the beginning of the disturbances, but soon after recovered by the aid of the friendly Gurkhás. Later on, in the month of August, the rebels under Muhammad Hassan occupied the whole District; and it was not till

the 6th of January 1858 that the Gurkhá army under Jang Bahádur marched in and occupied Gorakhpur. Muhammad Hassan was then driven out of the city, and shortly after the other rebels were expelled from the outlying *parganás*, which once more passed under our rule.

Population.—In 1853, the Gorakhpur Census returned the number of inhabitants at 1,816,390. By 1865, the figures had risen to 2,024,150, showing an increase of 207,760 persons, or 11·4 per cent. In 1872, there was an apparent falling off to the reduced total of 2,019,361, which would show a decrease of 4789 persons, or ·2 per cent. This loss, however, is only nominal, as the area for the Census of 1872 was less than that for the Census of 1865 by 22 square miles, or ·4 per cent. The density of population per square mile was 398 persons in 1853, 440 persons in 1865, and 441 persons in 1872, so that a real increase has steadily taken place during the whole period of nineteen years. The enumeration of 1872 was effected upon an area of 4578 square miles, and it disclosed a total population of 2,019,361 persons, distributed among 7097 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 381,237 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 441; villages per square mile, 1·5; houses per square mile, 83; persons per village, 285; persons per house, 5·2. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 1,078,072; females, 941,278; proportion of males, 53·4 per cent. Classified according to age, there were (with the like exception), under 12 years—males, 384,042; females, 300,402; total, 684,444, or 33·89 per cent. In religion, Gorakhpur still retains for the most part the original creed of its Aryan conquerors. The Census shows a total of 1,819,445 Hindus, or 90·1 per cent., as against 199,372 Musalmáns, or 9·9 per cent. The District also contains 533 Christians. The higher caste Hindus include 193,270 Bráhmans, 76,018 Rájputs, and 58,064 Banias. Among the inferior castes, the Ahírs are the most numerous, numbering 242,383 souls; but the Chamárs nearly equal them with a total of 210,108. The other principal Hindu castes are the Káyasths (22,757) and Kurmís (76,550). The Musalmáns consist of Shaikhs (126,835), Sayyids (3048), Mughals (611), and Patháns (20,228). South of Gorakhpur, and particularly along the Gogra, the country is densely inhabited, and the peasantry are civilised, comfortably housed, and much like the inhabitants of the southern Districts; but in the extreme north, where forests still abound, the people remain in a very backward condition, living in miserable huts, and being generally wilder, poorer, and more barbarous than the Doáb tribes. The only trade in that part of the District is the through traffic from Nepál, and the roads are few and bad. The great density of population

throughout renders the masses extremely poor, the standard of living low, and the margin of superfluity against evil times exceedingly narrow. There were 7 towns in 1872 with a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, GORAKHPUR, 51,117; GOLAH, 5147; GORA, 5482; PENA, 5331; AMUA, 6150; PADRAUNA, 5092; RUDARPUR, 6538. The united urban population accordingly amounted to 84,857. The vast majority of the inhabitants are scattered over the country in small hamlets.

Village Communities.—The villages in this District exemplify each of the three usual tenures—*pattidárí*, with imperfect *pattidárí*, *zamindárí*, and *bhayachára;* but the village has never assumed the same importance as a clearly separate unit here which it possesses in the revenue system of other Districts. The bond of connexion among the landholding classes was a feudal attachment to the Rájá on whom they were dependent; and village communities, in the sense of associations bound together by common proprietorship and residence in the same hamlet, were rare and of little importance. The various dependants and relatives of the Rájá were at first obliged to live with their chief, in order to be constantly at hand for his defence; and villages grew up around the fort or house of the Rájá as soon as his following became too large to be accommodated within its walls. The more defined and customary unit in this District is the *tappa* or hundred, a subdivision of the *parganá*, which appears to have existed before the time of the Muhammadans. In many cases the *tappas* correspond with natural divisions formed by rivers or other physical features; but very often they appear to be purely artificial, and probably represent the tract made over by a Rájá to some one of his dependants on a feudal tenure. In consequence of this peculiarity, the earlier revenue settlements were not made by villages, but by *tálukas* and *tappas*. The Muhammadan Divisions of *chaklás* and *sarkárs* were never much known in Gorakhpur, as their revenue system did not fully develop itself under the imperfect and transitory administration which they maintained in this outlying dependency. The uniformity of British rule, however, is making itself felt in this respect.

Agriculture.—Gorakhpur District contains a total cultivated area of 2621 square miles, but there still remains a margin of 897 square miles available for cultivation, most of which is now under forest. The mode of tillage does not differ from that which prevails elsewhere throughout the great alluvial basin of the Ganges and its tributaries. There are two harvests a year, in the autumn and in the spring. The *kharíf* or autumn crops are sown after the first rain in June, and gathered in October or November. They consist of cotton, rice, *bájra*, *joár*, *moth*, and other food grains. The *rabí* or spring crops are sown

immediately after the autumn harvest, and reaped in March or April. They are mainly composed of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and other pulses. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both harvests. Spring and autumn crops are seldom taken off the same ground, but sometimes a plot of early rice is gathered in August, and a second crop sown in its place for the spring harvest. Owing to the heavy and long-continued rains at the foot of the Himálayas, the country is often flooded, and the *rabí* sowing delayed much later than in other Districts. A great part of the surface is so long inundated, that it yields no autumn crops at all, the spring seed being sown as soon as the water clears off. This flooded land, however, is rendered exceedingly fertile by the deposits which are left behind as the waters recede. The forests possess little economical value. Wild honey is their chief product; the Bhars contract to collect it, and sell it in the neighbouring towns. The trees used to be tapped for their gum, but this practice has been stopped since the forests passed into the hands of Government. Compared with the misrule and oppression which took place under the native Rájás, and the Musalmán revenue-farmers, the condition of the people is now vastly improved. Wages and prices are still (1877) on the whole rather lower than in the Districts to the south of the Gogra; but the construction of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway will probably increase the demand for labour, besides equalizing the cost of necessaries. In 1877, coolies and unskilled hands received from 2¼d. to 3¾d. a day; agricultural labourers from 2¼d. to 3d.; bricklayers and carpenters from 6d. to 2s. Women get about one-fifth less than men, while children are paid one-half or one-third the wages of an adult. Prices ruled as follows in 1876:—Wheat, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; rice, 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; *joár*, 38 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; *bájra*, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Gorakhpur, being a naturally moist and rainy District, suffers less from famine than most other portions of the great north-western plain. The distress in 1780 and 1783 did not seriously affect the Districts beyond the Gogra. In 1803, the rice harvest failed, and the spring crops were endangered, but rain fell in September, and the scarcity was never very severe. The next great famine, in 1837-38, was most heavily felt in the Upper Doáb and Bundelkhand, and did not seriously attack Gorakhpur. The District suffered somewhat, however, in the dearth of 1860-61, when, under the pressure of want, crimes against property became twice as numerous as in ordinary years. In 1873-74, the drought extended to the Districts of Gorakhpur and Basti, and it became necessary to establish relief works in the spring of 1874. The rains shortly afterwards put an end to the distress, and the relief measures were at once discontinued.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of Gorakhpur is chiefly confined to the export of agricultural produce; but there is a small amount of through traffic with Nepál. BARHAJ is the principal mart of the District. In the north, the trade in rice and pepper is considerable, and that in timber, iron, and copper is large and increasing. The means of communication are still imperfectly developed. No railroad passes through the District, and the nearest railway stations are at Faizábád (Fyzabad) (80 miles), Akbarpur (68 miles), or Zamániá (76 miles). A good metalled road runs due south from Gorakhpur to Benares *viâ* Barhalganj, with a length of 36 miles in this District. It is carried over the depression of the Amiyar and Bigra lakes by an embankment 3 miles long, known as the Tucker *bandh*, flanked with solid masonry, and having four considerable bridges on its line. Another metalled road leads from Gorakhpur to Basti and Faizábád, with a length of 15 miles in this District. There are 910 miles of unmetalled road, of which 527 are raised and bridged throughout. The Rápti is navigable for country boats, which convey a large amount of grain and timber into the Gogra, and thence down to the Ganges. The Gogra itself receives a considerable quantity of grain from Barhaj and Barhalganj for the Ganges ports. Rafts of timber are floated down the fierce and dangerous channel of the Great Gandak from Nepál, besides grain and sugar from this District.

Administration.—The local staff generally consists of a Collector-Magistrate, 2 Joint Magistrates, and 1 Deputy, besides the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary establishments. The whole amount of revenue—imperial, municipal, and local—raised in the District in 1876 was £227,738, being at the rate of 2s. 2¼d. per head of the population. A new settlement of the land revenue was commenced in 1859 and completed in 1871. The land-tax in 1876 produced a total sum of £168,071. In 1875, the total strength of the regular police force amounted to 755 officers and men; while the cost of their maintenance was returned at £9374. These figures give an average of 1 policeman to every 6·07 square miles of area and every 2674 of the population, maintained at a rate of £2, 0s. 8¾d. per square mile, or 1d. per head of the inhabitants. The regular force was supplemented by a rural body of 2298 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*). The District jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 672 prisoners, of whom 616 were male and 56 female. The average cost per head amounted to £3, 13s. 1½d., and the average earnings of each prisoner to 12s. There are 18 imperial and 19 local post offices in the District, but no telegraph station. Education was carried on in 1875 by means of 435 schools, with a joint roll of 13,525 pupils; which gives an average area of 10·52 square miles for each school, and 6·6 scholars to every thousand of the population. Fifteen of these were

girls' schools. The total expense of the educational establishment was £4012, of which £1347 was paid from the Provincial treasury, and £2665 from local funds. For fiscal purposes, Gorakhpur is subdivided into 6 *tahsíls* and 12 *parganás*. The District contains 1 municipality, Gorakhpur. In 1875-76, its total income amounted to £4771, and its gross expenditure to £3732. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 6¼d. per head of the population within the limits of the municipality.

Sanitary Aspects.—The District is not subject to very intense heat, being secured from extremes by its vicinity to the hills, and by the moisture of its soil. Dust storms are rare, and cool breezes from the north, rushing down the gorges of the Himálayas, succeed each interval of very hot weather. The climate is, however, relaxing, and there is no bracing cold. The southern and eastern portions, where the jungle has been cleared, is as healthy as most parts of the Province; but the *tarái* and the forest tracts are still subject to malaria. The average rainfall from 1860 to 1871 was 45·8 inches; the maximum was 60 inches in 1861, and the minimum 25 inches in 1868. The mean monthly temperature in the shade was 77° in 1870, and 76° in 1871; the range was from 61° in January to 90° in June. The total number of deaths reported in 1875 was 40,092, or 19·85 per thousand of the population. The average death-rate for the previous six years was 18·23 per thousand. There are 4 charitable dispensaries in the District—at Gorakhpur, Rudarpur, Kasia, and Barhalganj. In 1875, they afforded relief to a total number of 34,258 patients.

Gorakhpur.—Central *tahsíl* of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; traversed by the river Rápti, and consisting throughout of a level plain. Area, 654 square miles, of which 379 were cultivated; pop. (1872), 330,875; land revenue, £25,923; total Government revenue, £28,426; rental paid by cultivators, £62,021; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 2⅝d.

Gorakhpur.—Municipal city and administrative headquarters of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 44′ 8″ N., long. 83° 23′ 44″ E.; area, 727 acres; pop. (1872), 51,117. Lies on the river Rápti, about the centre of the District. Founded in or near the year 1400 A.D., on the site of a more ancient city. For early history and Mutiny narrative, see GORAKHPUR DISTRICT. Headquarters of a civil and sessions judge; District jail; usual administrative offices. Considerable trade in grain and timber, sent down the Rápti to the Gogra and the Ganges. Government charitable dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £4771; from taxes, £3941, or 1s. 6¼d. per head of population (51,633) within municipal limits.

Gori-bidnur.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore. Area, 150 square

miles; pop. (1871), 36,501; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £5031, or 2s. 8d. per cultivated area. Soil loose and fertile, with water easily procurable below the surface. Products—cocoa-nut and areca-nut, sugar-cane, rice and turmeric.

Gori-bidnur.—Municipal village in Kolár District, Mysore; on the left bank of the North Pinákini river, 56 miles north-west of Kolár. Lat. 13° 37′ N., long. 77° 32′ 50″ E.; pop. (1871), 1454; municipal revenue (1874-75), £26; rate of taxation, 4d. per head. Ancient town with a legendary history connecting with the *Mahábhárata*. Head-quarters of *táluk* of the same name.

Gorigangá.—River in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; one of the headwaters of the Gogra; rises from a glacier about 12 miles south of the Anta Dhára Pass, at an elevation of 11,543 feet above sea level; runs in a perpetual cascade for 60 miles down the mountain valleys; and joins the Káli in lat. 29° 45′ N., long. 80° 25′ E., at a height of 1972 feet above sea level.

Gorinda Parsandan.—*Parganá* of Unao District, Oudh. A small *parganá*, formerly a waste and jungle tract used by Ahírs as grazing ground for their flocks and herds. Said to have been first cleared about 500 years ago by a Bráhman and a Káyasth. Area, 44 square miles, of which 25 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £3541, or an average of 2s. 1¼d. per acre. Land is held under the following tenures:—*Tálukdárí*, 3492 acres; *pukhtádárí*, 504 acres; *zamíndárí*, 8775 acres; *pattidárí*, 15,281 acres. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 21,103; Musalmáns, 665; total, 21,768, viz. 11,326 males and 10,442 females. Number of villages, 53; average density of population, 495 per square mile.

Gosáinganj.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; 14 miles from Lucknow city, on the road to Sultánpur. Founded by Rájá Himmat Gir Gosáin, in the reign of the Nawáb Shujá-ud-daulá, in 1754. The Rájá commanded a force of 1000 Rájput cavalry, and held the *parganá* of Amethi in *jágír* for the pay of the troops. On building the town and his fort, the extensive ruins of which are still in existence, he transferred the headquarters of the *parganá* hither, and altered the name of the *parganá* to that of the town. His power must have been considerable, for on one occasion, when the Nawáb was flying before the English after the battle of Baxar, the Gosáin refused him admission and shelter within the walls of his fort. On the conclusion of peace between the Nawáb and the English, however, the Rájá found it expedient to leave the place, and retire to his native village near Hardwár, where a small *jágír* was granted him by the British. The population of Gosáinganj in 1869 amounted to 3691, almost exclusively Hindus, dwelling in 856 houses. The town is clean and well kept, with a conservancy establishment maintained by levy of a house

tax. Gosáinganj has always been noted as a flourishing market town, and a brisk local trade is carried on. It has the advantage of direct communication with Lucknow and Cawnpore by a road connecting it with the Cawnpore imperial road at Bani bridge on the left bank of the Sai. This road is the great outlet for country produce, and in turn conveys to Gosáinganj European piece-goods and articles of English manufacture. Annual value of sales in the market are estimated at £19,150. Two religious festivals in the year are held in honour of the local goddess, each attended by about 5000 people, at which some trade is carried on. Two mosques, and one or two small Sivaite temples; police station; Government school.

Gostanadi (*Go-stáni-nadí*, 'River of the Cow's Udder').—River in Godávari District, Madras. An important stream, which has been converted into a useful navigable irrigation channel by the Godávari engineers. Its waters are considered sacred by the Hindus.

Gostháni (*Champavati* or *Konáda*).—River rising in Gajapatinagar *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras; flowing south-east for 48 miles till it enters the sea at Konáda. Principal villages, Gajapatinagar and Andhra.

Gotardi.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 1⅝ square mile. There are four chiefs. Revenue in 1875 estimated at £60; tribute of £42 payable to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Govindgarh.—A fortress lying north-west of the city of Amritsar, Punjab, at a short distance from the walls. Lat. 31° 40′ N., long. 74° 45′ E. Built by Ranjít Sinh in 1809 A.D., nominally for the protection of pilgrims to the holy city of the Síkhs, but really to overawe their tumultuous assemblage. Now garrisoned by a battery of artillery and a company of British infantry.

Gramang.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 33′ N., long. 78° 33′ E.; lies in the valley of Tidang, on the banks of a river bearing the same name, which flows with a violent course down the rapid descent. Well built, neatly laid out, and intersected with water-courses. The neighbourhood contains an immense number of temples, shrines, and other sacred buildings, devoted to the religious exercises of the Buddhist monks and nuns who inhabit the village. Elevation above sea level, 9174 feet.

Guásubá.—River in Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; one of the principal arms of the Ganges, falling into the sea in lat. 21° 38′ N., long. 88° 54′ E. Although of considerable size, it is the most difficult river to enter of any on the coast, on account of a bending channel at its mouth. A vessel entering it must bring the middle of the land on the east side of the river to bear north, and steer directly in for it till near shore; she ought then to steer to the westward until close to Bángáduní island, whence the channel takes a fairly straight direction to the north.

Gubbi.—Municipal town in Túmkúr District, Mysore; 13 miles by road west of Túmkúr; headquarters of the Kadaba *táluk*. Lat. 13° 18′ 40″ N., long. 76° 58′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 3714, including 292 Muhammadans, 57 Jains, and 19 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £125; rate of taxation, 8d. per head. Entrepôt for the trade in areca-nut between the high lands of Mysore and Wallájah-pet in North Arcot, and also for local traffic. Said to have been founded about 400 years ago by the *gauda* or chief of Hosahalli, the head of the tribe of Nonaba Wokligars. His descendant was dispossessed by Tipú Sultán, and the family are now ordinary cultivators, though their rank is acknowledged in their own tribe. Gubbi has suffered much from the antagonistic spirit prevailing between the rival trading castes of Komatis and Banajigas or Lingáyats, and was once in danger of being entirely abandoned owing to their dissensions. There are fairs, both weekly and annual, frequented by merchants from great distances. The neighbourhood produces coarse cotton cloths (both white and coloured), blankets, sackcloth, *wolágra* areca-nut, cocoa-nut, jaggery-sugar, tamarind, capsicum, wheat, rice, *rági* and other grains, lac, steel, and iron. Large imports are received in exchange for these articles, and Gubbi forms an intermediate mart for goods passing through the south of the peninsula in almost all directions. The local trade in areca-nut is estimated at 335 tons—value, £21,840; *kopri* or dry cocoa-nut, 134 tons—value, £3328; cotton cloth, £1500. In addition, areca-nut, pepper, and cardamoms are imported from Nagar and transmitted to Vellore and Wallájah-pet, whence nutmeg, mace, and European piece-goods are received in exchange. Sugar, sugar-candy, and silk from Bangalore are exchanged for cotton and thread from Dhárwár.

Gubut.—One of the petty States in Máhi Kánta, Bombay. Area under cultivation, 3000 *bighas;* estimated pop. (1875), 1225; estimated revenue, £250. The Thákur of Gubut, Wujái Sinh, is a Múkwána Kolí, born about 1873. The State pays a tribute of £4 to the Rájá of Edar.

Gúdalúr.—Pass in Travancore State, Madras; crossed by the road from Madura to Travancore. Gúdalúr village is situated in lat. 11° 9′ N., and long. 77° E.

Gúdalúr.—Village in Malabar District, Madras; situated at the foot of the Nediwatham Ghát, on the road to Utákamand (Ootacamund), and at the junction of the main roads from Mysore and Malabar. Lat. 11° 30′ N., long. 76° 34′ E. The whole township, formerly known as Wambalakod, contains 880 houses and 13,277 inhabitants. Since 1850 Gúdalúr has become the centre of the south-east Wynád coffee industry, and is a place of growing importance. A sub-magistrate, with a *munsiff's* jurisdiction, is stationed here. There are also police

and post offices, and a travellers' bungalow. The transfer of this station and the surrounding country to the jurisdiction of the Nílgiri Commission has been (1877) decreed.

Gudiátham (*Gooriattum*).—*Táluk* in North Arcot District, Madras. Houses, 25,863; pop. (1871), 162,980, being 82,466 males and 80,514 females. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 147,525, including 90,829 Sivaites, 56,400 Vishnuvites, and 181 Lingáyats; Muhammadans, 14,627, including 13,719 Sunnis, 194 Shiás, and 31 Wahábis; Christians (chiefly Roman Catholics), 828, viz. 11 Eurasians and 817 natives. Chief town, GUDIATHAM.

Gudiátham.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras; situated on the Madras Railway, 75 miles west from Madras, 15 miles west from Vellore (Velúr). Lat. 12° 57′ 20″ N., long. 78° 54′ 40″ E.; containing (1871) 1678 houses and 10,804 inhabitants. Headquarters town of the *táluk*, with court, sub-jail, school, post and telegraph offices. Centre of a considerable weaving industry; exports rice to Malabar.

Gudibanda ('*Temple Rock*').—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore. Area, 220 square miles; pop. (1871), 44,233; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £6864, or 2s. 2d. per cultivated acre.

Gudibanda ('*Temple Rock*').—Municipal village and headquarters of above *táluk*, in Kolár District, Mysore; 55 miles north-west of Kolár. Lat. 13° 41′ N., long. 77° 44′ 35″ E.; pop. (1871), 2909; municipal revenue (1874-75), £48; rate of taxation, 3d. per head. Situated at the foot of a rock, crowned by fortifications, and having a temple on the summit; residence of a local chief during the 17th century.

Gudiváda.—*Táluk* in Kistna District, Madras. Houses, 15,266; pop. (1871), 87,138, viz. 43,473 males and 43,665 females. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 84,463, including 66,676 Vishnuvites, 15,641 Sivaites, and 900 Lingáyats; Muhammadans, 2468, including 2218 Sunnis, 92 Shiás, and 15 Wahábis; Christians, all natives, and chiefly Protestants, 207.

Gúdúr.—*Táluk* in Nellore District, Madras. Area, 817 square miles; houses, 26,233; pop. (1871), 147,141, being 76,637 males and 70,504 females. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 140,923, viz. 77,921 Sivaites and 63,002 Vishnuvites; Muhammadans, 6129, including 5863 Sunnis and 240 Shiás; Christians (chiefly Roman Catholics), 76, viz. 25 Europeans and 51 natives. Revenue (1870-71), £35,886. Chief town, GUDUR.

Gúdúr.—Town in Nellore District, Madras; situated on the Great Northern Trunk Road, about 20 miles south of Nellore town. Lat. 14° 8′ 43″ N., long. 79° 53′ 30″ E.; containing (1871) 1235 houses and 6086 inhabitants. The headquarters station of the above *táluk*, with the usual Subdivisional courts, sub-jail, post office, police station, travellers' bungalow, and good camping ground.

Gúdúr.—Town in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras; situated about 19 miles north-west of Karnúl town, with which it is connected by a cart track. Lat. 15° 43′ N., long. 78° 34′ 40″ E.; containing (1871) 1098 houses, and a population of 5825. Formerly the headquarters of the *táluk*. The town is of no local note, except for its cotton cloths, in the manufacture of which a large section of its population is employed. There is also a small silk-weaving business.

Gugera.—Northern *tahsíl* of Montgomery District, Punjab; stretching on either side of the Rávi, and consisting for the most part of a dry and barren waste, with a narrow strip of cultivation along the river bank. Pop. (1868), 95,404; total cultivated area, 112,529 acres.

Gugera.—Town in Montgomery District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*; situated on the high southern bank of the Rávi, 30 miles north-east of Montgomery. Lat. 30° 58′ N., long. 73° 21′ E.; pop. (1868), 2114 souls. Formerly headquarters of the District, but abandoned in favour of Montgomery on the opening of the Lahore and Múltán (Mooltan) Railway in 1864. Since that time the town has declined in population and importance, and has now little claim to notice. *Tahsíli*, police station.

Guindy (*Kindi*).—Village in Chengalpat District, and suburb of Madras, 4 miles south-west of Madras. Lat. 13° N., long. 80° 16′ E.; containing (1871), with Roshambágh, 176 houses and 828 inhabitants. The country house and park of the Governor are at Guindy. The Government farm and School of Agriculture are at Roshambágh.

Gujáinli.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab, on the road from Kotkái to the Burinda Pass. Inhabited by a mining population, who extract and smelt the iron ore of the neighbouring hills. Lat. 31° 8′ N., long. 77° 42′ E.

Gujar Khan.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying near the foot of the Marrí (Murree) Hills; situated between 33° 4′ and 33° 26′ N. lat., and between 72° 59′ and 73° 39′ 30″ E. long.

Gujarát.—Northern seaboard Province of Bombay Presidency.—*See* GUZERAT.

Gujránwála.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 31° 32′ and 32° 33′ N. lat., and between 73° 11′ 30″ and 74° 28′ 15″ E. long., with an area (according to the Parliamentary Return of 1877) of 2563 square miles, and a population in 1868 of 550,576. Gujránwála is a District in the Lahore Division. It is bounded on the north-west by the river Chenáb, on the south and south-east by the Districts of Jhang and Lahore, and on the east by the District of Siálkot. The administrative headquarters are at the town of GUJRANWALA.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Gujránwála forms the central

portion of the Rechna Doáb, intermediate between the fertile submontane plains of SIALKOT and the desert expanses of JHANG. It displays, accordingly, all the transition stages by which the rich silt of the lower Himálayan slopes merges into the waterless level characteristic of North-Western India. On the northern frontier, a belt of alluvial land, some 2 to 6 miles in breadth, fringes the Chenáb throughout its course, and marks the wider valley within which the river has now and again shifted its uncertain channel. This low-lying strip is bounded on the south by a steep bank, whence the central uplands rise at once to the general level, which they maintain across the whole Doáb. For 10 miles from the river bed, the influence of the water is felt in all the wells; but beyond that line, the country becomes entirely dependent upon the rainfall for a precarious harvest. The eastern portion of the plateau, bordering on Siálkot, has a rich soil, with accessible water, and is quite equal in productive power to the country immediately above it; the villages here lie close together, while the people are careful and industrious cultivators. But as we recede from the hills, the soil becomes harder and drier, the water is hidden at greater depths, and the villages begin to lie farther apart. At last, in the extreme south, we reach the desolate tableland known as the *bár*, a flat expanse of seemingly barren land, dotted with low jungle, and only covered by grass after the rainy season has brought out the natural fertility of its thirsty soil. On its southern border, the *bár* assumes its worst characteristics, and passes slowly into the utter desert of JHANG. Even here, however, a few large marshes are to be found, whose stagnant waters serve as the last resource of cattle in seasons of drought. In the south-east corner of the District, the little river DEGH irrigates and fertilizes a tiny valley of its own, which its annual inundations supply with a rich deposit of loam. Two or three minor water-courses carry off the surface drainage into the Degh or the Chenáb, and are used for purposes of irrigation in the villages through which they pass. The District is very bare of trees, having little timber except the scrubby brushwood of the *bár*, which is only useful for fire-wood. Its scenery is everywhere tame, and in the central plateau becomes tediously monotonous. Yet it would be possible, by means of an extensive irrigation system, to raise the productiveness of the driest parts to as high a level as that now attained by the most fertile portions of the northern slope.

History.—The District of Gujránwála is essentially a modern creation, alike in its boundaries, its population, and its principal towns; yet it can claim important relics of the past, constructed during an early period of prosperity, which is completely separated from its later annals by a comparative blank. It seems likely, indeed, that the District once contained the capital of the Punjab, at an epoch when Lahore had not

yet begun to exist. We learn from the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, Hiouen Thsang, that about the year 630 he visited a town known as Tse-kia (or TAKI), the metropolis of the whole country of the Five Rivers. The site of this town has been identified by General Cunningham with a mound, near the modern village of ASARUR in this District, where immense ruins of Buddhist origin are still to be seen. Their date is marked by the discovery of coins, as well as by the great size of the bricks, which is characteristic of the period in which they were constructed. After the time of Hiouen Thsang, we know as little of Gujránwála as of Indian Districts generally, until the Muhammadan invasions brought back regular chronological history. Meanwhile, however, Táki had fallen into oblivion, and Lahore had become the chief city of the Punjab. Under Muhammadan rule, the District flourished greatly. From the days of Akbar to those of Aurangzeb, wells were scattered over the whole country, and villages lay thickly dotted about the southern plateau, which is now a barren waste of grass land and scrub jungle. Their remains may still be found in the wildest and most solitary reaches of the *bár*. EMINABAD and HAFIZABAD were the chief towns, while the country was divided into 6 well-tilled *parganás*. But before the close of the Muhammadan period, a mysterious depopulation fell upon this tract, the reasons of which are even now by no means clear. The tribes at present occupying the District are all immigrants of recent date, and before their advent the whole region seems for a time to have been almost entirely abandoned. Indeed, there is reason to think that most of the occupying clans have not held villages in the District for more than sixty years, and that previously their ancestors were nomad graziers in the ruined plain of the *bár*. The only plausible conjecture to account for this sudden and disastrous change is that of the settlement officers, who regard it as a simple result of the constant wars by which the Punjab was convulsed during the last years of Muhammadan supremacy. At the first beginning of the Síkh reaction, the waste plains of Gujránwála were seized by the various military adventurers who then sprang up on every side. Charat Sinh, the grandfather of the great Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh, took possession of the village of Gujránwála, then an inconsiderable hamlet, and made it the headquarters of himself and his son and grandson. Minor Síkh chieftains settled at WAZIRABAD, SHEKHUPURA, and other towns; while in the western portion of the District, the Bhattis and Játs maintained a sturdy independence. In the end, however, Ranjít Sinh succeeded in bringing all the scattered portions of the District under his own power. The great Mahárájá was himself born at Gujránwála, and the town continued to be his capital up to his occupation of Lahore. The Síkh rule, which was elsewhere so disastrous, appears to have been an unmitigated benefit to Gujránwála. Ranjít Sinh settled large colonies

in the various villages, and was very successful in encouraging cultivation throughout the depopulated plain of the *bár*. In the Degh valley, especially, he planted a body of hard-working Hindus, the Labánas, to whom he granted the land at a nominal rent, on condition that each cultivator should break up and bring under tillage the ground allotted to him. On the other hand, the paternal rule of the Mahárájá is said to have unfitted the people for self-reliant exertion under a more liberal *régime*. In 1847, the District came under British influence, in connection with the regency at Lahore; and two years later, in 1849, it was included in the territory annexed after the second Síkh war. It formed a part originally of the extensive District of Wazírábád, which comprised the whole upper portion of the Rechna Doáb. In 1852, this unwieldy territory was subdivided between Gujránwála and Siálkot. The present District, as then constituted, stretched across the entire plateau, from the Chenáb to the Rávi; but in 1853, the south-eastern fringe, consisting of 303 villages, was transferred to Lahore; and three years later, a second batch of 324 villages was similarly handed over to the same District. Since that time Gujránwála has enjoyed an immunity from the catastrophes of history, with the exception of the events of 1857, which, however, are in it more properly connected with the general annals of India than with the records of a single tract. Under Síkh and British rule, the relative importance of the various towns has been completely revolutionized; Gujránwála and Wazírábád have risen to the first place in wealth and populousness, while the older cities have declined into mere villages.

Population.—Owing to the large transfers of territory between this District and Lahore, it is impossible to employ the statistics afforded by the Census of 1855 for purposes of direct comparison; but there is reason to believe that the total increase in the population of the District, as at present constituted, between 1855 and 1868, amounted to 63,420, or 13·01 per cent. The enumeration undertaken in the latter year was the first for which the area was correctly ascertained. It disclosed a population of 550,576, scattered over a territory of 2653 square miles, with an aggregate of 1114 villages or townships, and 157,928 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 207; villages per square mile, 0·42; persons per village, 494; houses per square mile, 59·44; persons per house, 3·49. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 306,296; females, 244,280; proportion of males, 55·63 per cent. Classified according to age, we have the following results:—Under 12 years—males, 99,742; females, 84,186; total, 183,928, or 33·40 per cent. In religion, the District is mainly Muhammadan, though the Hindu element is much stronger here than in the border region to the north-west. The Census shows the following numbers and per-

centages:—Musalmáns, 357,550, or 64·94 per cent.; Hindus, 104,156, or 18·91 per cent.; Síkhs, 38,911, or 7·07 per cent.; 'others,' 49,959, or 9·07 per cent. As regards the ethnical division and caste distinctions of the people, the Bráhmans number 17,084, a few of whom are employed in agriculture or commerce, while the greater part maintain themselves by the exercise of their priestly functions. The Kshattriyas (22,624) and Arorás (25,789), both Hindus by creed, are the chief mercantile tribes. They also hold respectively 49 and 4 villages in the District, their landed property having been generally acquired by recent purchase. The Banias are only represented by 90 persons, as their usual functions of bankers and money-lenders are here usurped by the Kshattriyas and Arorás. The Játs number in all 237,600 persons, or 43·15 per cent. of the whole population. Farther north, their fellow-tribesmen have almost universally abandoned the Hindu creed—with its caste exclusiveness and narrow restrictions which press so heavily on the inferior classes—in favour of the comparative equality offered by Islám; but in Gujránwála, more than one-fourth of the tribe still retain their ancient faith, 174,754 being returned as Musalmáns, while 62,846 are enumerated as Hindus. Most of them lay claim to Rájput origin, a pedigree which is not improbable, as large clans of Játs appear to be composed of broken Rájput stocks. As elsewhere, they are industrious and cheerful cultivators, and they own no less than 549 villages. Some of the clans, however, still lead a nomad life in the wild pasture-lands of the *bár*. The undoubted Rájputs number 9290, Muhammadans almost to a man; amongst whom the half-tamed Bhattis of the south-west form the principal subdivision. They are a grazing and cattle-lifting race, who till only so much land as is absolutely requisite for their subsistence, and accumulate great wealth from the produce of their herds. The other Muhammadan tribes are the Sayyids (4604), Patháns (4421), Balúchis (5965), and Gújars (1326). As regards occupation, 224,778 persons are returned as agriculturists, and 325,798 as otherwise employed. There were 5 towns in 1868 with a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, GUJRANWALA, 19,381; WAZIRABAD, 15,730; RAMNAGAR, 7598; EMINABAD, 6711; and AKALGARH, 5038. These figures show a total urban population of 54,458 persons, or 9·88 per cent. of the inhabitants. The language in common use is Panjábi, but the townspeople and more intelligent peasants understand Urdu.

Agriculture.—According to the latest available returns, the total cultivated area of Gujránwála amounts to 567,849 acres, while the cultivable margin reaches the high figure of 701,761 acres. It will thus be seen that only 46·55 per cent. of the land fit for tillage has been actually brought under cultivation. However, as the cultivated area in 1850-51 amounted to only 424,184 acres, it follows that an increase

of 143,665 acres has taken place since that period, being in the proportion of 33·87 per cent. upon the tillage at the former date. The staple crop of the District is wheat, which occupies one-third of the cultivated area. The principal agricultural products, with the extent occupied by each, were returned as follows in 1872-73:—*Rabi* or spring harvest—wheat, 162,199 acres; barley, 42,529 acres; gram, 8933 acres; tobacco, 5360 acres; oil-seeds, 3006 acres; vegetables, 16,780 acres: *Kharif* or autumn harvest—rice, 20,333 acres; *joár*, 34,509 acres; *bájra*, 9105 acres; Indian corn, 15,610 acres; pulses, 39,065 acres; oil-seeds, 10,055 acres; cotton, 42,400 acres; sugar-cane, 33,180 acres; vegetables, 18,512 acres. Of all these, the most valuable crop in proportion to its acreage is sugar-cane; it is the most remunerative product grown in the District, and its cultivation is steadily increasing. Within the last few years, the out-turn of sugar has doubled, and all the irrigated land of the Wazírábád and Gujránwála *parganás* is now covered by waving fields of the green cane. Cotton was largely produced during the scarcity which followed the American war, but the culture has now shrunk once more to the normal demand for home consumption. The evergreen shrub *mehndi*, from whose leaves a valuable scarlet dye is procured, forms an occasional crop in the District; it might be grown in much larger quantities to great advantage, but the development of this important industry is retarded by the superstitions of the peasantry, who regard the plant as unlucky, and walk about in the constant dread of sudden death if they possess a patch of it in their holding. Irrigation is very general, as many as 327,832 acres being artificially watered from private works in 1868. Part of this area is supplied from the natural overflow of the Chenáb and the Degh; the remainder is irrigated by wells, or by Persian wheels in connection with natural and artificial ponds. The use of manure is also common, especially for the richer crops, such as sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco, maize, and garden produce, almost all of which also require copious watering and great attention. Wheat is likewise very generally manured. Rotation of crops, though still in its infancy, is partially practised. The land always receives at least two or three ploughings for each harvest; in the case of the richer products, eight or ten are found necessary; while soil intended for sugar-cane is sometimes ploughed as many as sixteen times. The average out-turn of wheat per acre is 454 lbs., valued at 13s. 4½d.; that of sugar-cane is 618 lbs., valued at £1, 16s. 4¼d. Most of the land is held under the tenure known as *pattidárí*, in which the rights and liabilities of sharers are regulated by ancestral or customary usage. Few of the tenants have acquired hereditary or occupancy rights. Rents ruled as follows in 1872-73, in accordance with the nature of the crop for which the soil is fitted:—Rice lands, from 8s. to 14s.; cotton lands, from 6s. to 14s.; sugar lands, from 18s. to £1, 18s.;

wheat (irrigated), from 6s. to 12s. and (unirrigated) from 4s. to 8s.; inferior grains (irrigated), from 4s. to 8s. and (unirrigated) from 4s. to 6s. Agricultural labourers are universally paid in kind. In the towns, wages ruled as follows in 1872-73:—Skilled labour, from 4½d. to 9d. per diem; unskilled labour, from 3¾d. to 6d. per diem. In 1873, the prices of food grains were returned at the following rates:—Wheat, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; gram, 19 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 10⅝d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10¼d. per cwt.; *joár*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 8¾d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is unimportant, and purely local in its character. The only exports are agricultural produce, brass vessels, leathern bottles, and timber. The return trade consists of salt, iron, cattle, spices, and English piece-goods. Sugar, wheat, *ghí*, and wool are sent down the Chenáb from Wazírábád, Rámnagar, and other water-side towns; land transport is chiefly effected by means of camels. The manufactures are almost confined to cotton and woollen fabrics for home consumption; but the smiths of Wazírábád have a good reputation for small cutlery and ornamental hardware. The principal religious fair is held at Dhonkal, at which it is calculated that 200,000 persons assemble. As usual, business is largely mixed with the sacred character of the festival. The great channel of communication is the Northern State Railway from Lahore to Peshávar, which is opened as far as Wazírábád, and has stations at that town and at Gujránwála. The Grand Trunk Road, connecting the same two places, traverses the District for a distance of 42 miles, metalled and bridged throughout. Of unmetalled roads, there are 1055 miles in Gujránwála, besides a number of local by-ways. The Chenáb is navigable throughout for the boats of the country, the chief river marts being those of Wazírábád, Rámnagar, and Mahánwala. A line of telegraph runs along the side of the Grand Trunk Road.

Administration.—The ordinary civil staff of Gujránwála consists of a Deputy Commissioner, Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners, and three *tahsíldárs*, besides the usual medical and constabulary officials. In 1871, the revenue was returned at £53,560; while the amount contributed by the land tax was set down at £44,352. The other principal items are stamps and excise. In 1872-73, the District contained 12 civil or revenue and 19 magisterial courts. In the same year, the imperial police numbered 406 men of all ranks, besides 117 municipal constables. There was thus a total police force of 523 men, being 1 policeman to every 1052 of the population and to every 4·89 square miles. The regular force was supplemented by 1092 village watchmen or *chaukídárs*. The number of persons brought to trial for all offences, great or small, in 1871, amounted to 2773; or 1 offender to every 198 of the population. There is 1 jail in the

District, the total number of prisoners in which was 1081 in 1870, 1308 in 1871, and 1191 in 1872; while the daily average strength for the same three years was 413, 423, and 512 respectively. Education is still unfortunately backward, the agricultural population especially having made no advance in their appreciation of its advantages. The total number of pupils on the rolls of the various schools amounted in 1873 to 5818; while the sum expended upon their maintenance was £2469, of which £1241 was derived from the public funds. The District is subdivided into 3 *tahsíls* and 11 *parganás*, containing an aggregate of 1195 villages, owned by 35,110 proprietors or coparceners. Average land revenue from each village, £37, 2s. 7⅜d.; from each proprietor, £1, 5s. 3⅛d. The only regularly constituted municipalities in the District are those of Gujránwála and Wazírábád, but a municipal income is also realized at 14 union towns or large villages. Their aggregate population amounts to 83,788 persons, and their joint revenue gave a total of £3048 in 1871-72, being at the rate of 8¾d. per head of their inhabitants.

Sanitary Aspects.—No statistics as to the temperature of Gujránwála are available for any date later than the year 1867. Observations made at that time show that the mean monthly temperature ranged from 53° in January to 95° in June; while the minimum and maximum readings for the same year were 20° and 120° respectively. The average rainfall for the eleven years ending in 1867 was 24 inches for the whole District. The prevalent diseases are intermittent fever and small-pox, the latter of which exists always in an endemic form. The total number of deaths recorded in 1872 amounted to 12,592, or 23 per thousand of the population; but these figures are probably below the truth. The towns are badly drained, or rather not drained at all; and the urban death-rates are extremely high. The returns for 1872 show the following results:—Gujránwála, 51 per thousand; Eminábád, 77 per thousand; and Wazírábád, 43 per thousand. The Government has 4 charitable dispensaries—at Gujránwála, Akálgarh, Wazírábád, and Háfizábád, which afforded relief in 1872 to 17,168 patients.

Gujránwála.—*Tahsíl* in Gujránwála District, Punjab; situated between 31° 49′ and 32° 20′ N. lat., and 74° 28′ 15″ and 75° 50′ E. long. Area, 758 square miles; pop. (1868), 222,549; number of villages, 400.

Gujránwála.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Gujránwála District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 9′ 30″ N., long. 74° 14′ E.; pop. (1868), 19,381, comprising 7951 Hindus, 9019 Muhammadans, 1867 Síkhs, 85 Christians, and 459 'others.' Lies on the Grand Trunk Road and Northern State Railway, 40 miles north of Lahore. The town is of modern creation, and owes its importance entirely to the father and grandfather of Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh, whose capital it

formed during the early period of the Síkh power. Ranjít Sinh himself was born at Gujránwála, and made it his headquarters until the establishment of his supremacy at Lahore. Large dwelling-houses of Síkh architecture line the main streets; the minor lanes consist of tortuous alleys, often ending in *culs-de-sac*. The town lies in a plain of dead level, destitute of natural drainage; and its sanitary condition has called forth severe comments. Mausoleum to Máhan Sinh, father of Ranjít Sinh; lofty cupola covering a portion of the ashes of the great Mahárájá himself. Civil station lies a mile south-east of the native town. It contains the court-house, treasury, jail, dispensary, post office, staging bungalow, and church. Trade in local produce only; small manufactures of country wares, including brass vessels, jewellery, shawl edgings, and silk and cotton scarves. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1767, or 1s. 8⅞d. per head of population (20,215) within municipal limits.

Gujrát.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 32° 10′ 30″ and 33° N. lat., and between 73° 20′ and 74° 31′ E. long., with an area (according to the Parliamentary Return of 1877) of 2029 square miles, and a population in 1868 of 616,347 persons. Gujrát forms the easternmost District of the Ráwal Pindi Division. It is bounded on the north-east by the Native State of Kashmir, on the north-west by the river Jhelum (Jhilam), on the west by Sháhpur District, and on the south-east by the rivers Távi and Chenáb, separating it from the Districts of Siálkot and Gujránwála. The administrative headquarters are at the town of GUJRAT, 4 miles from the present bed of the Chenáb.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Gujrát comprises a narrow wedge of sub-Himálayan plain country, enclosed between the boundary valleys of the Jhelum and the Chenáb. The tract of land thus cut off possesses fewer natural advantages than any other portion of the sub-montane Punjab region. From the basin of the Chenáb on the south, the general level of the country rises rapidly toward the interior, which, owing to the great depth of water below the surface, begins to assume a dreary and desert aspect almost from the very base of the great mountain chain itself. The bed of the Jhelum on the northern boundary of the District has an elevation of 111 feet above that of its south-eastern affluent, and thus testifies to the considerable rise in the general surface of the upland plateau. A range of low hills, known as the Pabbi, traverses the northern angle of Gujrát, commencing on the Jammu frontier, 5 miles below the town of BHIMBAR, and passing south-westward in a direct line till it abuts upon the bank of the Jhelum; rising again beyond the valley of that river, the system trends northwards once more, and ultimately merges in the Salt range. These hills consist of a friable tertiary sandstone

and conglomerate, totally destitute of vegetation, and presenting to the view a mere barren chaos of naked rock, deeply scored with precipitous ravines. The highest point attains an elevation of 1400 feet above sea level, or about 600 feet above the surrounding plain. Immediately below the Pabbi stretches a high and undulating plateau, which runs eastward across the whole breadth of the Doáb, and terminates abruptly in a precipitous bluff some 200 feet in height, overlooking the channel of the Távi, an affluent of the Chenáb, in the north-eastern corner of the District. At the foot of the plateau, again, succeeds a dry but not infertile champaign country, bounded by a lowland strip some 8 miles in width, which forms the actual wider valley of the Chenáb itself, and participates in the irrigation from the river bed. Scarcely one-fifth of the plain has been brought under the plough; the remainder consists of brushwood jungle, valued only as a pasture-ground for the herds of cattle which make up the principal wealth of its inhabitants. The dreary and sterile aspect of the country increases in a marked degree as we move westward. Even in the best portion of the plain, water can only be obtained in wells at a depth of 60 feet below the surface, which precludes the possibility of its general use for purposes of irrigation. At the foot of the high bank, however, which terminates this central plain, the Chenáb lowlands have a fertile soil of consistent loam, whose natural fruitfulness is enhanced by artificial water supply from the mountain streams, which pass in deeply-cut channels through the dry uplands, but expand once more into broad reaches as they flow through the alluvial flats. Close to the actual channel, a fringe of land, some 2½ miles in width, is exposed to inundation from the flooded river, and produces rich crops upon the virgin silt. A similar belt of lowland fringes the Jhelum; but the deposits from this river contain a large admixture of sand, which renders the soil far less fertile than in the valley of the Chenáb. The District as a whole is well wooded, and great attention has been paid to arboriculture. The State preserves some 60,000 acres of waste land for the growth of timber, under the management of the Forest Department.

History.—Numerous relics of antiquity stud the surface of Gujrát District. Mounds of ancient construction yield considerable numbers of early coins, and abound in archaic bricks, whose size and type prove them to belong to the prehistoric period of Hindu architecture. General Cunningham has identified one of these shapeless masses, now occupied by the village of Moga or Mong, with the site of Nikæa, the city built by Alexander on the field of his victory over Porus. This mound, a conspicuous object for many miles around, lies about 6 miles west of the Pabbi range, and has a height of 50 feet, with a superficial dimension of 600 by 400 feet. Copper coins of all the so-

called Indo-Scythian kings are found in abundance amongst the rubbish which composes the heap. Gujrát itself evidently occupies an ancient site, though the existing town dates only from the time of Akbar. Ját and Gújar tribes form the principal elements of the population, and their legends afford a concurrence of testimony in favour of the view that their ancestors entered the District from the east in comparatively modern times. The Delhi Empire first made a settlement in this portion of the Punjab under Bahlol Lodi (A.D. 1450-88), by whom the town of Bahlolpur upon the Chenáb, 23 miles north-east of Gujrát, was founded as the seat of Government. A century later, Akbar visited the District, and restored Gujrát as the local capital. That emperor's administrative records are still extant, having been preserved in the families of the hereditary registrars (*kanúngos*). They exhibit Gujrát as the centre of an administrative division comprising 2592 villages, and producing a revenue of £163,455. During the long decay of the Mughal power, the District was overrun by the Ghakars of RAWAL PINDI, who probably established themselves at Gujrát in 1741. The country also suffered at the same time from the ravages of Ahmad Sháh Duráni, whose armies frequently crossed and recrossed the District. Meanwhile the Síkh power had been asserting itself in the eastern Punjab; and in 1765, Sardár Gújar Sinh, head of the Bhangi Confederacy, crossed the Chenáb, defeated the Ghakar chief, Mukarrab Khán, and extended his dominions to the banks of the Jhelum. On his death in 1788, his son, Sáhib Sinh, succeeded to the domains of his father, but became involved in war with Máhan Sinh, the chieftain of Gujránwála, and with his son, the celebrated Ranjít Sinh. After a few months of desultory warfare in 1798, the Gujrát leader found it well to accept a position of dependence under the young ruler of Gujránwála. At length in 1810, Ranjít Sinh, now master of the consolidated Síkh empire, determined to depose his tributary vassal. Sáhib Sinh withdrew to the hills without opposition, and shortly afterwards accepted a small portion of the present Siálkot District as a private landowner. In 1846, Gujrát first came under the supervision of British officials, a settlement of the land tax having been effected under orders from the Provisional Government at Lahore. Two years later, the District became the theatre for the series of important battles which decided the event of the second Síkh war. While the siege of MULTAN (Mooltan) still dragged slowly on, Sher Sinh established himself at Rámnagaron, the Gujránwála side of the Chenáb, 22 miles below Gujrát, leaving the main body of his army on the northern bank. Here he awaited the attack of Lord Gough, who attempted unsuccessfully to drive him across the river, 22nd November 1848. Our commander withdrew from the assault with heavy loss; but sending round a strong detachment under Sir Joseph Thackwell by the Wazír-

ábád ferry, he turned the flank of the enemy, and won the battle of Sadullápur. Sher Sinh retired northward, and took up a strong position between the Jhelum and the Pabbi Hills. The bloody battle of Chiliánwála followed (13th January 1849), a victory as costly as a defeat. On 6th February, Sher Sinh again eluded Lord Gough's vigilance, and marched southwards to make a dash upon Lahore; but our army pressed him close in the rear, and, on the 22d of February, he turned to offer battle at Gujrát. The decisive engagement which ensued broke irretrievably the power of the Síkhs. The Punjab lay at the feet of the conquerors, and passed by annexation under British rule. At the first distribution of the Province, the whole wedge of land between the Chenáb and the Jhelum, from their junction to the hills, formed a single jurisdiction; but a few months later, the south-western portion was erected into a separate charge, with its headquarters at SHAHPUR. Various interchanges of territory took place from time to time at later dates; and in 1857, the north-eastern corner of the original District, comprising the tongue of land between the Távi and the Chenáb, was transferred to Siálkot. Gujrát District then assumed its present form.

Population. — The first Census of Gujrát took place in 1855, and it returned the number of inhabitants in the area now composing the District at 500,167 souls. A second enumeration, effected in 1868, disclosed a total population of 616,347, showing an increase of 116,180 persons, or 23·22 per cent. in the thirteen years. The last-named Census was taken over an area of 1900 square miles, and it resulted in the following statistics:—Number of villages, 1429; number of houses, 156,195; persons per square mile, 324; villages per square mile, 0·75; houses per square mile, 82; persons per village, 430; persons per house, 3·94. The western portion of the District is very sparsely populated. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 331,919; females, 284,428; proportion of males, 53·85 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 124,368; females, 106,456; total children, 230,824, or 37·45 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, Gujrát is an essentially Musalmán District, where the ancient religion has been almost crushed out, and the Síkh reaction has produced but little effect. In 1868, the Muhammadans numbered no less than 537,696, or 87·24 per cent.; while the Hindus amounted to only 53,174, or 8·63 per cent., and the Síkhs to 20,653, or 3·35 per cent. The District also contained 49 Christians, and 4775 'others.' The agricultural population was returned at 355,152 persons, of whom 109,983 were males above 18 years of age. Among Hindus and Síkhs, the ethnical divisions comprised 9377 Bráhmans, 20,697 Kshattriyas, 20,150 Arorás, and 1749 Játs. The Muhammadans included 14,808 Sayyids, 25,352 Rájputs, 160,879 Játs, and 84,966 Gújars. Hence it appears that

the mass of the Musalmán population consists of converts to Islám, drawn either from the old Rájput aristocracy, who were forcibly brought under the faith of the Prophet, or from the lower castes, which readily exchanged the exclusive creed of their fathers for the comparative freedom of the Muhammadan belief. Among those who profess the two branches of the ancestral religion, 70 per cent. belong to tribes engaged almost exclusively in commerce. The most important Rájput tribe is that of the Chibs, who occupy the country immediately below the Himálayas, both in this District and in Jammu, and hold a high social rank. The Játs and Gújars, comparatively recent converts to Islám, engage in agriculture or pastoral pursuits over the central uplands. In 1875-76, the District contained 4 municipal towns with a population exceeding 5000—namely, GUJRAT, 17,391; JALALPUR, 14,022; KUNJAH, 5354; and DINGA, 5077.

Agriculture.—Wheat forms the staple product of the *rabi* or spring harvest; while the common millets, *joár* and *bájra*, make up the chief items in the *kharíf* or autumn crops. Barley, gram, rice, pulses, oil-seeds, and cotton also cover considerable areas; while sugar-cane is grown in small quantities on the better irrigated soil. With the exception of rice, which is of inferior quality, all these staples reach an average level of goodness. The following statement shows the acreage under each crop in 1875-76:—Wheat, 260,621 acres; barley, 66,430 acres; gram, 30,822 acres; oil-seeds, 53,379 acres; *joár*, 71,570 acres; *bájra*, 129,076 acres; pulses, 35,052 acres; cotton, 21,466 acres; sugar-cane, 6869 acres; and rice, 7303 acres. No canals exist in the District, either public or private; and artificial irrigation is entirely confined to wells. Of these, 6772 were returned as in operation during the year 1866-67. Each well may be considered to supply water on an average to an area of some 18 acres. In the central plateau, cultivation depends entirely upon the comparatively regular rainfall. In 1875-76, 708,863 acres were returned as under cultivation, of which 267,893 acres were provided with artificial irrigation. The area under tillage has largely increased of late years. Property in the soil rests for the most part in the hands of the village communities, which differ from one another only in the degree to which division of holdings has been carried; a very small number of villages still retain the principle of common proprietorship; in the remainder, division has been either partially or wholly effected. In any case, the State holds the entire village responsible for the amount of the land tax assessed upon it. Less than one-fourth of the tenants possess rights of occupancy. The average holding of a joint proprietor amounts to 18 acres; of an occupancy tenant, 8 acres; of a tenant-at-will, 5 acres. The latter class invariably pay their rents in kind. Occasional agricultural labourers also receive their wages in kind. In 1875-76,

cash wages ranged from 6¾d. to 7½d. per diem for skilled workmen, and from 3¾d. to 4½d. per diem for unskilled workmen. Prices of food grains ruled as follows on 1st January 1876:—Wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; barley, 35 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 2d. per cwt.; gram, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt.; *joár*, 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 10d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 35 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 2d. per cwt. Owing to the regularity of the rainfall, drought is comparatively infrequent. The famine of 1869-70 produced little effect on this District, beyond raising the price of provisions to rather less than double the above quotations.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The petty merchants of Gujrát, Jalálpur, Kunjáh, and Dingá hold in their hands the greater part of the local trade. The exports consist chiefly of grain, *ghí*, wool, and other agricultural produce, most of which goes down the river to Múltán (Mooltan) or Sakkar; but the opening of the Northern State Railway now affords a new outlet for traffic. The imports come chiefly from Lahore, Amritsar, Jammu, and Pind Dádan Khán. Boats sent down the stream seldom return, being bought up upon their arrival at their destination, and employed in the lower navigation of the three rivers. The Northern State Railway passes through the District from south-east to north-west, with stations at Gujrát, Lála Musa, and Khárián. The bridge across the Chenáb was formally opened by the Prince of Wales in January 1876; while another leads across the Jhelum into the District of that name. Bridges of boats conduct the Grand Trunk Road over both rivers. Good branch lines of road connect Gujrát with all surrounding centres; that to Bhimbar being much frequented as a route to Kashmír. In 1875-76, the District contained 55 miles of metalled and 650 miles of unmetalled roads.

Administration.—The total revenue derived from the District in 1861-62 amounted to £55,171. By 1875-76, it had increased to £64,425. This gain is chiefly due to improvement in the land-tax, while the remaining increase must be set down to the items of excise and stamps. The land settlement now in force took place in 1865, and will have effect till the year 1886-87. Besides the imperial revenue, the District contributes a sum of about £10,000 by local cesses for expenditure on works of public utility within its limits. In 1875-76, 11 civil and revenue judges of all kinds held jurisdiction in the District, three of whom were covenanted civilians. The regular police force in the same year numbered 514 men, giving an average of 1 constable to every 3·65 square miles of area and every 1199 of the population. This force was further supplemented by a body of 620 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*). For the six years ending 1872, the District criminal calendar showed an aggregate list of 28 murders, and 33 cases of dacoity and robbery with violence. Thefts and

criminal trespasses in 1872 together numbered 1414. The District jail at Gujrát received in 1872 a total number of 797 prisoners. During the same year, the number of State-supported schools amounted to 46, having a joint roll of 3550 scholars. The educational budget showed an expenditure of £1613, of which the imperial revenues contributed £1221. The District school at Gujrát ranks as one among the eight 'higher class' schools of the Punjab. In 1875-76, the number of schools was returned as 47, and that of pupils as 3600. These figures show an average of 43·1 square miles for each school, and 5·8 scholars per thousand of the population. In 1875-76, the District contained 4 municipalities—namely, GUJRAT, JALALPUR, KUNJAH, and DINGA. They had a joint revenue of £1675, giving an average incidence of 9⅝d. per head of their united population.

Medical Aspects.—Gujrát generally bears an excellent reputation as a healthy District, but excessive irrigation in the neighbourhood of the headquarters town is said to breed fever and ague. Small-pox prevails largely along the eastern border, imported probably from Jammu from time to time. The official returns of 1875-76 state the total number of deaths *recorded* in the District during that year as 11,294, being at the rate of 18 per thousand of the population. In the towns of Gujrát and Jalálpur, 547 and 517 deaths respectively were registered; being at the rate of 31 and 36 per thousand. The District contains 6 charitable dispensaries, which gave relief in 1875 to 31,788 persons, of whom 329 were in-door patients. I have obtained no thermometric returns, but the heat at Gujrát is considered moderate, even in the months of May and June, owing to the proximity of the hills. The average rainfall varies from 33 inches immediately below the Himálayas to 26 inches or less in the western uplands. As a rule, the fall is regular, nor does the District suffer from drought so much as many of its neighbours. The annual average for the whole District during the eight years ending 1873-74 was 28·5 inches.

Gujrát.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Gujrát District, Punjab; situated between 32° 24′ and 32° 53′ N. lat., and between 73° 49′ 30″ and 74° 31′ E. long., consisting chiefly of the lowland tract along the Chenáb. Area, 552 square miles; pop. (1868), 272,055 souls; river number of villages, 553; persons per square mile, 492.

Gujrát.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Gujrát District, Punjab, lying a short distance to the north of the present bed of the Chenáb. Lat. 32° 34′ 30″ N., long. 74° 7′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 14,905, consisting of 5499 Hindus, 8979 Muhammadans, 307 Síkhs, and 120 'others.' Pop. (1876), 17,391. Stands upon an ancient site, formerly occupied by two successive cities; the second of which General Cunningham supposes to have been destroyed in A.D. 1303, the year of an early Mughal invasion of Delhi. Nearly 200 years later,

Sher Sháh turned his attention to the surrounding country, and either he or Akbar founded the existing town. Though standing in the midst of a Ját neighbourhood, the fort was first garrisoned by Gújars, and took the name of Gujrát Akbarábád. Remains of the imperial period still exist. During the reign of Shah Jahán, Gujrát became the residence of a famous saint, Pír Sháh Daulá, who adorned the city with numerous buildings from the offerings of his visitors. The Ghakar chief, Mukarab Khán of Ráwal Pindi, held Gujrát for twenty-five years, till his expulsion in 1765 by the Síkhs under Sirdár Gújar Sinh Bhangi. For subsequent history, see GUJRAT DISTRICT. The town was rendered memorable during the second Síkh war by the battle which decided the fate of the campaign, bringing the whole Punjab under British rule. Akbar's fort, largely improved by Gújar Sinh, stands in the centre of the town. The civil station lies to the north of the native city, and contains the court-house, treasury, jail, dispensary, police lines, staging bungalow, and post office. The trade of Gujrát is inconsiderable. Coarse cotton cloth, pottery, and other articles of common use form the chief manufactures. Inlaid work in gold and iron, however, known as Gujrát ware, has acquired a considerable reputation, and meets with a ready sale among Europeans as a *spécialité* of Punjab art. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £780, or 10¾d. per head of population (17,391) within municipal limits.

Gulariha.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 36 miles from Unao town, and 16 from Purwa. Lat. 26° 24′ N., long. 81° 1′ E. Founded about 500 years ago by one Gulár Sinh Thákur. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 4029; Muhammadans, 94; total, 4123. Government school.

Guledgud.—Town and municipality in Kaládgi District, Bombay; situated 22 miles south-east of Kaládgi, and 9 miles north-east of Bádámi. Lat. 16° 3′ N., long. 75° 50′ E.; pop. (1872), 10,674; municipal revenue (1874-75), £380; rate of taxation, 8½d. per head. Local manufactures of cotton and silk cloth, which are exported to Sholápur, Poona, the Konkan, and Bombay. Post office.

Gulerí.—Pass across the Suláimán Hills, Afghánistán; much frequented by the Povindah traders on their journeys from Kábul and Kandahár into the Punjab.—*See* GOMAL.

Guma.—One of the Eastern Dwárs attached to Goálpára District, Assam. Area, 96·14 square miles, of which only 6·53 are returned as under cultivation; pop. (1870), 19,240 males and 17,807 females—total, 37,047, residing in 6888 houses.—*See* DWARS, EASTERN.

Gumání.—River of the Santál Parganás District, Bengal; rises in the southern division of the Rájmahál Hills, and at first runs north-east into the Barháit valley. It is there joined by the Moral, coming from the northern hills; and the united stream, which has thus collected the

entire drainage of the range, flows south-east through the Ghátiárí Pass to join the Ganges near Mahádeo-nagar.

Gumání.—Name given to the ATRAI RIVER of Northern Bengal, when it passes through the southern extremity of the Chalan *bíl* in Rájsháhí District, whence it passes into Pabná.

Gumár.—Village in Mandi State, Punjab, on the southern slope of the Himálayas. Lat. 31° 57′ N., long. 76° 24′ E. Thornton states that it contains a mine of rock-salt, rudely worked under the control of the Mandi Rájá.

Gumgáon.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated on the Waná river, 12 miles south of Nágpur town. Lat. 21° 1′ N., long. 79° 2′ 30″ E.; pop. (1870), 3342, chiefly agricultural, though the Koshtís largely manufacture cotton cloth. Near the police quarters, and commanding the river, are the remains of a considerable Marhattá fort, and near it a fine temple of Ganpatí, with strongly built walls of basalt facing the river. Both fort and temple were built by Chímá Bái, wife of Rájá Raghojí II., since whose time this estate has continued in the direct possession of the Bhonslá family.

Gumnayakan-palya.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore, with head-quarters at BAGEPALLI. Area, 342 square miles; pop. (1871), 48,600; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £6485, or 3s. 4d. per cultivated acre. Products, a fine breed of sheep and iron ore.

Gumnayakan-palya.—Village in Kolár District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 48′ 15″ N., long. 77° 58′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 239. Situated on a small rocky hill, crowned with fortifications, erected by a local chief, Gumna Náyak, about 1364. The family gradually extended their territory, and maintained their independence until overthrown by Haidar Alí.

Gúmsar (*Ghumsar*, or *Goomsar*). — *Táluk* in Ganjám District, Madras. Houses, 32,164; pop. (1871), 158,061, viz. males, 79,300, and females, 78,761. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 157,054, including 124,436 Vishnuvites and 9590 Sivaites; Muhammadans, 366, of whom 321 were Sunnis; Christians (chiefly Roman Catholics), Eurasian 6, native 146—total, 193; no Buddhists or Jains. The Gúmsar country till 1835 was native territory; but in that year the chief rose in rebellion against the British power, a military expedition was despatched against him, and his territory was annexed. One of the principal benefits which resulted from this expedition was the suppression of the practice of human sacrifice, which, as was then discovered for the first time, prevailed to a considerable extent among the Kandhs, a wild tribe inhabiting the hilly country in the neighbourhood.—*See* ORISSA TRIBUTARY STATES, BUNDARE, etc.

Gúmsar.—Town in above *táluk*, Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 50′ N., long. 84° 42′ E.; containing (1871) 408 houses and 2319 inhabitants. Formerly the chief town of the *táluk* to which it gives

its name; 6 miles south-east from Russellkonda, the present head-quarters town. Previous to the disturbances of 1835-36, it was the seat of the Gúmsar chiefs, and members of the family still reside there. The town is now of no importance.

Gumti.—River of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. It rises in Sháhjahánpur District of the North-Western Provinces, in an alluvial tract between the Deoha or Gara and the Gogra rivers. Its source is in a small lake or morass called the Phaljar Tál, in lat. 28° 37′ N., long. 80° 7′ E.; 19 miles east of Pilíbhit town, and about 605 feet above sea level. The river takes a sinuous, but generally south-eastern course for 42 miles, when it enters Oudh in Kheri District, in lat. 28° 11′ N., long. 80° 20′ E. It continues its course to the south-east, till at about 94 miles from its source it receives the Kathna as a tributary on its left bank, in lat. 27° 28′ N., long. 80° 27′ E. Continuing south-eastwards for 80 miles farther, and receiving during its course the Saráyan in lat. 27° 9′ N., long. 80° 55′ E., Lucknow city is reached, where the river is spanned by five bridges. The river here becomes navigable throughout the year; its banks are from 30 to 70 feet high, and it has a minimum cold-weather discharge of 500 cubic feet per second. Below Lucknow, the valley of the Gumti becomes very narrow, and the scenery picturesque. At Sultánpur, about 170 miles south-east of the Oudh capital, the stream in the dry season is 100 yards wide, with a depth of 4 feet, and a current running at the rate of 2 miles an hour. About 52 miles south-east of Sultánpur, the river re-enters the North-Western Provinces in Jaunpur District. At Jaunpur town, 30 miles from the Oudh frontier, the Gumti has become a fine stream, spanned by a bridge of 16 arches; 18 miles below Jaunpur, it receives the Sái river on its left bank; and 33 miles lower, in Benares District, the Nind river also on the left bank. Five miles below this last point, the Gumti falls into the left bank of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 31′ N., long. 83° 13′ E., after a total course of about 500 miles. Just above the confluence, the Gumti is crossed by a bridge of boats in the cold and hot weather, which is replaced by a ferry in the rainy season. The Gumti is navigable by boats of 500 *maunds*, or about 17 tons burden, throughout the year as far as Diláwarpur Ghát, near Muhamdi in Kheri District. The worst shoals are in Sultánpur District. Average fall, 8 inches per mile.

Gumti.—River in Tipperah District, Bengal; formed by the junction of two rivers—the Cháimá and Ráimá, which rise respectively in the Atármurá and Lanktharái ranges of the Tipperah Hills. These streams unite to form the Gumti near the eastern boundary of the Tipperah State, just above the succession of rapids known as the Dumrá Falls. The Gumti enters Tipperah District near the village of Bíbíbázár, about 8 miles east of Comillah, and divides the District into two nearly

equal portions. After a westerly course, it joins the Meghná at Dáúdkándi, in lat. 23° 31′ 45″ N., long. 90° 44′ 15″ E. Its entire length, inclusive of windings, is 66 miles; but from the point where it enters British territory to where it empties itself into the Meghná, its direct length is 36 miles. During the rains, the Gumti is deep and rapid; in the cold and dry seasons, it becomes fordable at many places. The chief tributaries in Tipperah Hill State are the Kásiganj, the Pithráganj, and the Mailákcherral, all on the right or north bank. The principal towns on the Gumti are COMILLAH, Jáfarganj, and Pánchpukuriá. Ferries at Comillah, Companyganj, and Nurpur.

Gúna (*Goona*).—Tract of country in Central India, comprising the States of RAGHUGARH and PARON (known as the Gúna Agency).

Gunás. — Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, across the southern Himálayan range. Lat. 31° 21′ N., long. 78° 13′ E. The path winds up the bank of the river Rupin, a tributary of the Tons, and crosses an expanse of snow, as far as the eye can reach, over the northern slope. Elevation of the crest, 16,026 feet above sea level.

Gund.—Petty hill State in the Punjab; tributary to the Rájá of KEUNTHAL. Area, 3 square miles; estimated pop. 1000; estimated revenue, £100.

Gundamorla Bar.—Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 15° 31′ N., long. 80° 16′ 30″ E. An opening into the sea about 2 miles south of the Gundlakamma river; about 325 yards wide, and 7 feet deep.

Gundár (*Gundu-ár* or *Shaumuganadi*).—River in Madura District, Madras; formed by the junction of several streams which rise in the Andipatti or Varshanád range, and meet about lat. 9° 36′ N., long. 78° 14′ E. After a south-easterly course of about 100 miles, it falls into the sea at Kilkarái, lat. 9° 8′ N., long. 78° 33′ 30″ E.

Gundárdihi.—Chiefship attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces; containing 52 villages, on an open and well-cultivated area of 80 or 90 square miles. Has belonged for 300 years to the family of the present chief. Gundárdihi village is situated in lat. 20° 56′ 30″ N., long. 81° 20′ 30″ E.

Gúndialí.—One of the petty States of Jháláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £1200; tribute of £140 is payable to the British Government.

Gundlakamma (literally, '*Stony Bed*').—River of Madras, which rises in the Nalla Mallái Hills in Karnúl District, near Gundla Brahmesvaram, in lat. 15° 40′ N., long. 75° 49′ E. After receiving two mountain streams, the Jampáleru and the Yenamaleru, it passes into the low country through the Cumbum (Kambham) gorge, at which spot a fine lake has been formed by a dam thrown across the course of the river. This sheet of water, known as the Cumbum Tank, is about 13 miles in

circumference. It then follows a tortuous course through Karnúl, Kistna, and Nellore Districts, and finally falls into the Bay of Bengal, 12 or 14 miles north of Ongole, in lat. 15° 33′ N., long. 80° 18′ E. The principal or new mouth of the river is always open, varying in width, according to the season, from 600 to 250 yards, and in depth from 6 to 12½ feet. The second mouth, called by the people Pata Gundlakamma, is open only in the rains, and has a maximum depth of 6 feet on the bar.

Gundlamau.—*Parganá* of Sítápur District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Machhrehta and Kurauna *parganás;* on the east by the Saráyan river, separating it from Bári *tahsil;* and on the south and west by the Gumti river, separating it from Hardoi District. The early inhabitants of the *parganá* were Kachheras, who were driven out by the three sons of a Báchhil Kshattriya, one of whom, named Gonde Sinh, founded and gave his name to the place. The descendants of these Báchhils still own 53 out of the 67 villages which constitute the *parganá*. The Kuchlái estate in the north-east of the *parganá* is owned by a community of the tribe of the same name. The *parganá* is, on the whole, a poor one, with a scanty population. The villages to the east, bordering on the Saráyan, are much cut up by ravines; and those to the west are subject to a deposit of sand blown from the Gumti in the hot season; a few of them, however, especially in the south, have a fertile tract of *tarái* land fringing the river. Area, 65 square miles, of which 46 are cultivated; incidence of Government land revenue, 2s. 6⅞d. per acre on cultivated area, 2s. 0½d. per acre on assessed area, and 1s. 9⅜d. per acre on total area. Rents are paid almost entirely in kind. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 19,647; Muhammadans, 573; total, 20,220, viz. 10,936 males and 9284 females; average density of population, 316 per square mile. No made roads, but the Gumti and Saráyan afford good water communication. Three small market villages, at which only the commonest articles of trade are sold. No manufactures.

Gundlupet.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 539 square miles; pop. (1871), 58,529; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £5697, or 1s. 4d. per cultivated acre. Has decreased in population and prosperity during the present century.

Gundlupet. — Principal village in above *táluk*, Mysore District, Mysore; situated on the Gundul river, 36 miles south of Mysore town. Lat. 11° 50′ N., long. 76° 44′ E.; pop. (1871), 1000, including 109 Muhammadans, 14 Christians, and about 100 Márka or old Canarese Bráhmans. Municipal revenue (1874-75), £95, or 1s. 11d. per head. Old town, formerly called Vijáyapura, refounded about 1674 by Chikka Deva Rájá, Wodeyar of Mysore, as being the scene of his father's cremation. He built an *agrahára*, now destroyed, and a fine

temple to Aparamita Paravása Deva, fast falling to ruin. The prosperity of the town suffered on the accession of Tipú Sultán, and it has since been depopulated by fever.

Gundwa.—*Parganá* of Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north and east by the Gumti, separating it from Aurangábád, Gundlamau, and Manwán *parganás*, in Sítápur; on the south by Malihábád in Lucknow; and on the west by Sandíla and Kalyánmal. The portion of the *parganá* lying towards the Gumti consists of branching ravines, occasional sandhills, and poor uneven stretches of sandy *bhúr* land. Towards the south-east corner, an old channel of the river seems to have silted up, and become converted into a network of *jhíls*. At a distance from the river, the soil changes from *bhúr* to *dumát*, but the sand still remains as a substratum. A number of small creeks and water-courses fall into the Gumti, carrying with them the overflowings of the *jhíls* in the interior. Area, 140 square miles, of which 88 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £10,514; average incidence, 3s. 9¼d. per acre of cultivated area, or 2s. 4⅛d. per acre of total area. Staple products—barley and wheat, which occupy ⅖ths of the cultivated area; other crops—*másh*, gram, *bájra*, *ahar*, *moth*, *joár*, linseed, rice, *kodo*, and peas. Of the 117 villages comprising the *parganá*, 48 form the *táluka* or estate of Bharáwán; 36 are *pattidári*, 30 *zamíndári*, and 6 *bhayáchári*. Kshattriyas own 94 villages; Bráhmans and Káyasths, 7 each; Kurmís, 3; and Muhammadans, 6. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 53,643; Muhammadans, 3228; total, 56,871, viz. 29,989 males and 26,882 females; average density of population, 406 per square mile. An unmetalled road intersects the *parganá*, and rough cart tracks link the main villages together. Three Government village schools.

Guni.—*Táluk* in Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind; situated between 24° 30′ and 25° 13′ N. lat., and between 68° 19′ and 68° 50′ E. long. Pop. (1872), 59,971; area, 989 square miles; revenue (1873-74), £11,545.

Guntoor.—*Táluk* and town in Kistna District, Madras.—*See* GANTUR.

Guptasar.—Sacred cave in Sháhabad District, Bengal; about 7 miles from Shergarh. It is situated in a glen, and the entrance, about 18 feet wide by 12 high, lies a little way up the hill; the surface of interior is everywhere broken and irregular, and masses of rock project from the sides. There are three galleries in the cave, one of which contains the chief object of worship, viz. a stalactite revered as Mahádeo. This cave has never been thoroughly explored, but its various windings are said to be half a mile long.

Gurdáspur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 32° 30′ and 31° 36′ N. lat., and

between 74° 56′ and 75° 45′ E. long., with an area (according to the Parliamentary Return of 1877) of 1818 square miles, and a population in 1868 of 906,126 persons. Gurdáspur forms the north-eastern District of the Amritsar Division. It is bounded on the north by the Native Himálayan States of Kashmír and Chámba, on the east by Kángra District and the river Beas, on the south-west by Amritsar District, and on the west by Siálkot. The administrative headquarters are at the town of GURDASPUR; but BATALA is the chief centre of trade and population.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Gurdáspur occupies the submontane portion of the Bári Doáb, or tract between the Biás (Beas) and the Rávi, and stretches westward beyond the latter river so as to include a triangular wedge of territory which naturally belongs to the adjoining District of Siálkot. An outlying spur of British territory also runs northward into the lower Himálayan ranges, to include the mountain sanitarium of Dalhousie. The rapid torrent of the Chaki separates the Gurdáspur Hills from those of Kángra; while beyond the Rávi, the Jammu boundary encroaches on the submontane tract for some 10 miles below the southern escarpment of the Himálayan system. DALHOUSIE station crowns the westernmost shoulder of a magnificent snowy range, the Dháola Dhár, between which and the plain two minor ranges intervene. Below the hills stretches a picturesque and undulating plateau, covered with abundant timber, and made green by a copious rainfall. In the triangular wedge west of the Rávi, water from hill streams is everywhere available for irrigation, besides conferring additional fertility through the deposit of virgin loam. The streams of the Bári Doáb, however, diverted by dams and embankments, now empty their waters into the Beas directly, in order that their channels may not interfere with the BARI DOAB CANAL, which derives its supply from the Rávi. The central watershed of the Doáb consists of an elevated plain, contracted to an apex just below the hills, but rapidly spreading out like an open fan until it fills the whole space between the two river beds. Well-defined banks terminate the plateau on either side, the country falling abruptly away to the present level of the rivers. The bank toward the Biás (Beas) valley attains a considerable height, and is covered by a ridge of drifted sand; that toward the Rávi is less marked. The plain, though apparently a dead level, has a sufficient westward slope to cause a rapid flow of water in definite drainage lines after heavy rain. Five principal water-courses of this description collect a volume large enough to be employed for purposes of irrigation many miles beyond the borders of the District. The Bári Doáb Canal, drawing its supplies from the Rávi at Mádhupur, just south of the hills, runs for some miles through a deep cutting, but emerges on the level a little east of Gurdáspur town, and divides into three main

branches, which become immediately available for irrigation. The District contains several large *jhíls* or swampy lakes, whose shallows afford excellent opportunities for the cultivation of rice and *singhára*.

History.—Few facts can now be recovered with regard to the early annals of Gurdáspur. The principal cities during the Mughal period were BATALA and PATHANKOT. The former town, situated in the centre of the Doáb, was the residence of Shamsher Khán, the Emperor's foster-brother, who enlarged the walls, and built a magnificent tank, which still exists. Pathánkot, at the foot of the hills, once formed the capital of a little Rájput State, said to have been established in the 12th century by one Jet Pál, an emigrant from Delhi. His family afterwards transferred their residence to Núrpur, a town situated within the hill tract, now included in the neighbouring District of Kángra. Kalánaur also has some claims to antiquity, and finds mention in the Muhammadan annals as the place where the great Akbar learned the news of his father's death, and assumed the title of Emperor. Dehrá Nának, on the Rávi, preserves the name of the founder of the Síkh religion, who died in A.D. 1539 at a village on the opposite bank. In spite of such local reminiscences, however, we know little of the District as a whole during the days of the wide-spread Mughal empire, beyond the fact that its government was administered from the Provincial capital at Lahore. Our first distinct historical knowledge begins with the rise of the Síkh confederacy. After long struggles with the imperial governors on the one hand, and with Ahmad Sháh Duráni on the other, the vigorous young sect found itself at last triumphant; and from A.D. 1764, its chiefs began to parcel out the Punjab and the cis-Sutlej country into such portions as each could conveniently hold. The western section of the Bári Doáb fell into the hands of one Amar Sinh, surnamed Bhaga, a Mán Ját from Amritsar, who joined the community or *misl* known as the Kanhia. Other chieftains of the same *misl* occupied neighbouring estates on either side of the Ravi. Batála fell to Jagra Sinh, the famous leader of the Rámgharia community, together with DINANAGAR, KALANAUR, SRIGOVINDPUR, and other surrounding towns. Jagra Sinh was expelled by the Kanhias, but returned in 1783, and securely established himself in his former dominions. He died in 1803, and his son Jodh Sinh succeeded to his estates. The latter formed a close friendship with Ranjít Sinh, the great Mahárájá of Lahore. On his death in 1816, however, Ranjít Sinh took advantage of a disputed succession to annex the whole of his territories. The dominions of the Bhaga family in the western half of the District had been absorbed by the Síkh Lahore Government in 1809. Beyond the Rávi, the triangular wedge, now attached to this District, had fallen piecemeal into the power of Ranjít Sinh by similar acts of spoliation between the years 1789 and 1813. Much of

the territory thus acquired remained in the hands of its masters on a feudal tenure (*jágír*), while other estates were similarly granted to new holders. Pathánkot and a few neighbouring villages in the plain, together with the whole hill portion of the District, formed part of the area ceded by the Síkhs to the East India Company after the first Síkh war in 1846. Under the original distribution of the new territory, they were attached to Kángra; but after the final annexation in 1849, the upper portion of the Bári Doáb became a separate District, having its headquarters at Batála. In 1855, the District received an addition by the transfer of Shakargarh *tahsíl*, beyond the Rávi, the headquarters at the same time being removed to Gurdáspur. In 1861-62, the neck of hills connecting the plains with the new sanitarium of Dalhousie was acquired by the British Government; and this addition brought the District into its present shape. The chief landholder in Gurdáspur at the present time is Sardár Bhagwán Sinh of Batála, nephew of the great Síkh general, Tej Sinh, who commanded at Firozsháh and Sobráon. Tej Sinh obtained Batála in 1861 from the British Government, whom he had so bravely opposed, in exchange for scattered estates in other parts of the Province.

Population.—The numerous transfers of territory which took place in the interval between the Census of 1855 and that of 1868 render it impossible to give a detailed comparison of their results; but it appears that in the portion of the District unaffected by those changes, the inhabitants increased during the thirteen years at the rate of about 12½ per cent. The enumeration of 1868 was taken over an area of 1822 square miles, and it disclosed a total population of 906,126 persons, distributed among 2376 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 208,256 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 496; villages per square mile, 1·29; houses per square mile, 114; persons per village, 381; persons per house, 4·35. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 501,247; females, 404,879; proportion of males, 55·32 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 179,288; females, 150,693; total children, 329,981, or 36·41 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, the population of Gurdáspur is evenly distributed between the great leading sects. The Hindus number 303,107, or 33·45 per cent.; the Muhammadans, 422,196, or 46·59 per cent.; while the Síkhs are returned at 79,387, and the 'others' (including the sweeper class) at 101,436, or 8·76 and 11·19 per cent. respectively. The agricultural population numbers 420,882 persons, of whom 202,382 are male agriculturists above the age of 18 years. The ethnical division shows the following results:—Játs, 126,200, of whom 87,922 are Hindus or Síkhs, and 38,278 Muhammadans—they hold almost the whole of the uplands in the

Bári Doáb, the Muhammadans being most frequent in the neighbourhood of the hills, while round Batála the Játs are almost universally Síkhs; Rájputs, 77,387, of whom 50,942 are Hindus, and the remainder Musalmáns—the greater part of the submontane tract is in the hands of Hindu Rájputs; Bráhmans, 54,222; Gújars, 47,301, all Muhammadans; Kshattriyas, 18,720; Kashmiris, 12,583; and Patháns, 10,236. In 1875-76, the District contained 16 municipal towns, but of these only 6 had a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, BATALA, 26,897; DERA NANAK, 7199; DINANAGAR, 6626; SUJANPUR, 6556; KALANAUR, 6030; and SRIGOVINDPUR, 5531. GURDASPUR, the headquarters town, has 4137 inhabitants. The total population of the 16 municipal towns amounts to 89,295 persons. Derá Nának and Srígovindpur possess great sanctity in the eyes of the Síkhs. The sanitarium of DALHOUSIE, 7687 feet above sea level, though only returned as containing 2019 inhabitants, has a large fluctuating population during the warmer months.

Agriculture.—The District possesses throughout an excellent soil, except in some small patches on the Biás (Beas) side, where sand covers the surface. The chief agricultural staples comprise wheat, barley, and gram for the *rabí* or spring harvest, with rice, *joár*, *bájra*, pulses, cotton, and sugar-cane for the *kharíf* or autumn crop. Abundant means of irrigation exist where required, either from canals, wells, or mountain streams; but in no part of the Punjab can better crops be produced without such artificial aid. In 1875-76, the total cultivated area amounted to 855,675 acres, of which 140,639 acres were protected by irrigation against the effects of drought. The Bári Doáb Canal supplies 33,314 acres, and the remainder is watered by private enterprise, chiefly from wells. The Rávi and the Biás (Beas) inundate about 44,000 acres in time of flood. The acreage under the principal crops in 1875-76 was returned as follows:—Wheat, 196,142 acres; barley, 124,013 acres; gram, 21,449 acres; rice, 75,057 acres; *joár*, 27,778 acres; *bájra*, 12,259 acres; pulses, 37,697 acres; cotton, 11,122 acres; and sugar-cane, 32,899 acres. The large proportion of the area devoted to the richer food-grains—the cereals and rice—and to commercial crops like cotton and sugar-cane, sufficiently attests the agricultural prosperity of the District. The usual types of village tenure prevail throughout, differing from one another only in the varying degrees of division between the coparceners. The returns of 1873-74 show that out of a total of 1942 villages, a purely communal tenure exists in only 116. Among the remainder, either the whole or a part of the village lands has been divided off in definite portions to the individual holders. By far the greater part of the area is cultivated by tenants-at-will. Rents are almost universally paid in kind. Occasional agricultural labourers also receive their wages in kind. Cash wages in

1875-76 ranged from 7½d. to 9d. per diem for skilled workmen, and from 3¾d. to 4½d. per diem for unskilled workmen. During the same year, the prices of food-grains ruled as follows:—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; gram, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The famine of 1869-70, which caused severe distress in the adjoining District of Amritsar, scarcely affected the prosperity of Gurdáspur. The harvests attained an average excellence, and high prices enabled the cultivators to make large profits. On 1st January 1870, wheat sold at 10 *sers* per rupee, or 11s. 2d. per cwt.

Commerce, etc.—The trade of the District consists mainly in the export of its agricultural produce, the chief items being wheat, rice, raw sugar, and cotton. These staples pass in small consignments by road to Amritsar, or by boat to Lahore and Múltán (Mooltan). The imports are insignificant, as the wants of the District are chiefly met by home production. English piece-goods, salt, and fancy articles form the main items. The local traffic centres on Batála. Coarse cotton cloth is manufactured in the villages, and better fabrics at Batála, in imitation of the work of the Amritsar looms. The principal road of the District connects Amritsar with Pathánkot, at the foot of the hills, and passes through Batála, Gurdáspur, and Dinánagar. Minor lines radiate from Batála and Gurdáspur to Jalandhar, Hoshiárpur, Siálkot, and other surrounding towns. The total length of highways in 1875-76 was 54 miles of metalled and 507 miles of unmetalled road.

Administration.—The revenue of the District has been nearly stationary for the last decade. In 1876, the total receipts amounted to £123,608, of which the land-tax yielded £108,641, or more than five-sixths. The other items of importance were stamps and excise. The present land settlement, effected in 1863-65, will continue in force until 1883. Besides the imperial revenue, an income of not less than £10,000 is raised by local cesses for expenditure upon works of public utility within the District. The administrative staff usually includes three covenanted or staff-corps civilians. An Assistant Commissioner is always stationed at Dalhousie. In 1875-76, the District contained 12 civil and revenue judges of all ranks; and 14 officers exercised magisterial powers. During the same year, the regular police force, including the municipal constabulary, numbered 596 men; being at the rate of 1 policeman to every three square miles of area and every 1520 of the population. These forces are further supplemented by a large body of rural watchmen (*chaukídárs*), of whose numbers, however, no returns exist. The District jail at Gurdáspur received in 1872 a total number of 862 prisoners. Education makes slow but steady progress. In 1875-76, the State contributed to the support of

112 schools, having an aggregate roll of 5708 pupils, showing an average area of 16·1 square miles to each school, and 6·2 scholars per thousand of the population. During the same year, the 16 municipal towns had a joint income of £5584, or 1s. 3d. per head of their aggregate population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate at Gurdáspur station is comparatively agreeable to Europeans even during the summer months; but the heat increases rapidly on receding farther from the hills. The mean temperature in 1871 was 86·85° in May, and 53·8° in December, at Gurdáspur; and 67·8° in May, and 46·96° in December, at Dalhousie. The maximum in the shade during the same year was 113·3° at Gurdáspur, and 85° at Dalhousie. The rainfall is regular and plentiful, but decreases with the distance from the hills. The average annual rainfall for the whole District for the eight years ending 1873-74 amounted to 30·96 inches. The District is not considered unhealthy, though large swamps in the neighbourhood of some of the lesser towns expose them to malarious fevers and ague; and the same results are attributed to alleged excessive irrigation elsewhere in the plains. The total number of deaths recorded in 1875-76 was 38,519, being at the rate of 42 per thousand of the population. Seven charitable dispensaries afforded relief in the same year to 80,614 persons, of whom 776 were in-patients.

Gurdáspur.—Central *tahsíl* of Gurdáspur District, Punjab; situated between lat. 32° 12′ 45″ and 31° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 8′ and 75° 38′ 30″ E.

Gurdáspur. — Chief town and administrative headquarters of Gurdáspur District, Punjáb. Lat. 32° 2′ 40″ N., long. 75° 27′ E.; pop. (1876), 4137. Situated on the elevated plain midway between the Rávi and the Beas, 44 miles north-east of Amritsar, on the Pathánkot road. Selected as headquarters in 1856, on account of its central position. Small civil station, containing court-house and treasury, posting bungalow, *sarái*, *tahsíli*, police station, post office, dispensary, and school-house. Well wooded and comparatively cool, even during the summer months. Town unimportant, except as a trading centre for the produce of the neighbouring villages; irrigated by the Bári Doáb Canal. Exports of sugar and food grains to Amritsar. The proximity of the hill sanitarium of DALHOUSIE renders Gurdáspur a favourite station with European officials. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £376, or 1s. 9¾d. per head of population (4137) within municipal limits. (Pop. in 1868, 3325.)

Gurgáon.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 27° 39′ and 28° 30′ 45″ N. lat., and between 76° 20′ 45″ and 77° 35′ E. long.; area, 2015 square miles in 1868 (1980 by Parliamentary return of 1878); pop. (1868), 696,646.

Gurgáon forms the southern District of the Delhi Division. It is bounded on the north by Rohtak; on the west and south-west by portions of the Ulwur (Alwár), Nábha, and Jínd Native States; on the south by Muttra District of the North-Western Provinces; on the east by the river Jumna; and on the north-east by Delhi District. The administrative headquarters are at the town of GURGAON, but REWARI is the chief centre of trade and population.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Gurgáon comprises the southern-most corner of the Punjab, and stretches away from the level plain which composes the greater portion of that monotonous Province, towards the hilly outliers of the great Rájputána tableland, Accordingly, its surface presents a greater variety of contour than is usual among the alluvial Districts to the north and west. Two low rocky ranges enter its borders from the south, and run northward in a bare and unshaded mass toward the plain country. The western ridge divides the District for some distance from the adjacent Native State of Ulwár (Alwár), and finally terminates in three low and stony spurs a few miles south of the civil station; while the eastern line disappears some 25 miles from the frontier, but again crops up at the north-eastern angle, and runs on into the District of Delhi, where it abuts at last upon the Jumna close to the Mughal capital. The highest point of either range does not exceed 600 feet above the level of the neighbouring plain; and a scanty growth of grass in the rainy season, together with a few patches of scrub jungle, alone redeems the coarse sandstone summits from utter sterility. The northern plain falls into two natural divisions, on either side of the western range. Eastwards, the valley between the two ridges lies wide and open throughout; and after the escarpment of the shorter ridge, an alluvial level extends in an unbroken line to the bank of the Jumna. The soil for the most part, though abruptly diversified in character, affords great facilities for agriculture; while midway between the river and the hills, water occurs at a depth of 70 feet below the surface. Immediately at the foot of the uplands, undulating hollows become filled with water during the rains, forming extensive swamps. Westward from the sandstone range lies the subdivision of Rewári, almost entirely separated from the remainder of the District, with which it is connected only by a narrow strip of territory. It consists of a sandy plain, dotted with isolated hills, but having water at a depth which permits of easy irrigation from wells. Though naturally dry and sterile, it has grown under the careful hands of its Ahír cultivators into a flourishing garden. Numerous torrents carry off the drainage from the upland ranges; and the most important among them empty themselves at last into the Najafgarh *jhíl*. This swampy lake lies to the east of the civil station of Gurgáon, and stretches long arms into the neighbouring Districts of Delhi and Rohtak. Embank-

ments raised for purposes of irrigation check the water of the smaller torrents at their exit from the hills, and distribute it among the cultivated fields around. The Jumna receives no tributaries in this District. Salt is manufactured from brine in wells at twelve villages near Noh, and along the banks of the Najafgarh *jhil* on the border of Rohtak. Iron ore abounds in the southern portion of the hills, and Firozpur (Ferozepore) in the extreme south once possessed considerable smelting works, now rendered unremunerative by the exhaustion of the timber. The other mineral products include copper ore, plumbago, and ochre. Sonah, at the base of the western range, has a sulphur spring whose medicinal properties rank high in the treatment of rheumatism, Delhi ulcers, and other cutaneous disorders. The District contains no forest, and few trees of any sort. Wolves are common in the hills, and leopards are occasionally shot. Deer abound throughout; *nílgái* may be met with more rarely; while jackals, hares, and foxes are found in all parts of the District.

History.—Gurgáon possesses but little historical interest, and contains no noteworthy relics of antiquity. In the Muhammadan annals, however, it finds frequent mention under the name of Mewát, or country of the Meos, who form to this day one of the most important of its tribes. These Ishmaelites of Upper India gave constant trouble by their turbulence to the authorities of Delhi during the Mughal period. Marauding bands would issue from the dense jungle, which then clothed the whole western portion of the District, and plunder the cultivated plain up to the very walls of the imperial city. So secure were their fastnesses among the hills, that no repressive efforts ever took permanent effect. Accordingly, Gurgáon remained without any annals during the whole period of Mughal and Marhattá supremacy, and passed into our hands as a mere desert after Lord Lake's conquests in 1803. Semi-independent chieftains then held the territory on military tenures; and only the unalienated portion passed under the civil administration of the Delhi Political Agent. Gradually, however, as estate after estate lapsed from failure of heirs, or from forfeiture through misconduct, the District assumed its present form. Many years passed before order could be firmly established in these savage wilds. Bishop Heber, who passed through Gurgáon in 1825, describes the country as still badly cultivated, while he speaks of its state only fifteen years before as resembling that of the *tarái*, abounding with tigers, and having no human inhabitants except banditti. But under the settled influence of British rule, improvements steadily and rapidly progressed, so that the officers engaged upon the land settlement in 1836 found few traces either of the jungle or the tigers. The banditti were still represented, perhaps, by many turbulent tribes, especially among the Rájputs; but the general condition of affairs had been

greatly ameliorated. No single date can be given for the extension of direct British administration over the whole of this outlying tract. The Rájá of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) at first farmed the country; but his grant was revoked on the outbreak of the Bhartpur war in 1804. Thenceforth, the native chieftains held their lands direct from our Government during good conduct; and the District was formed from the various lapsed estates which fell in from time to time. The last important addition took place in 1858, when the territories held by the Nawáb of Farrukhnagar were confiscated on account of his participation in the Mutiny. The administrative headquarters were originally fixed at the small cantonment of Bharawás, near Rewári, but were transferred to the unimportant village of Gurgáon in 1821. The District, with the rest of the Delhi territory, was annexed in 1832 to the Government of the North-Western Provinces, and so remained until 1858. On the outbreak of the Mutiny at Delhi in May 1857, the Nawáb of Farrukhnagar, the principal feudatory of the District, rose in rebellion. The marauding Meos and many Rájputs followed his example, and flew to arms. A faithful native officer preserved the public buildings and records at Riwári from destruction; but with this exception, British authority became extinguished for a time throughout Gurgáon. So long as the siege of Delhi lasted, no attempt was made to restore order; but after the fall of the rebel capital, a force marched into the District, and easily captured or dispersed the leaders of rebellion. Civil administration was resumed under orders from the Government of the Punjab, to which Province the District was formally annexed on the final pacification of the country.

Population.—A Census of the District effected in 1853, under the Government of the North-Western Provinces, returned the total number of inhabitants at 682,486. A second Census, taken on the 10th of January 1868, showed an increase of 14,160, which would probably have been far greater had not the disturbances of 1857 intervened between the two dates. The latter enumeration extended over an area of 2015 square miles, and it disclosed a total population of 696,646 persons, distributed among 1299 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 156,775 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 345; villages per square mile, 0·64; houses per square mile, 77·77; persons per village, 536; persons per house, 4·59. A transfer of territory to Delhi District a few months later reduced the area to 1981 square miles, and the population to 690,295; which are the statistics accepted for the general statements of this notice. Classified according to sex, the Census of 1868 returned 370,251 males and 326,395 females; proportion of males, 53·15 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 133,532; females, 111,608; total

children, 245,140, or 35·19 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 480,307, or 68·94 per cent.; the Muhammadans, 216,147, or 31·02 per cent.; while the Síkhs were returned at 130, and 'others' at 62. The statistics of occupation show an agricultural population of 397,492 persons, of whom 115,881 were males above 18 years of age. With reference to the ethnical divisions and caste distinctions of the people, the Meos form the largest element, being returned at 114,693. The Játs rank second in numerical order, with a total of 75,567. The Meos are probably of pure Indian blood, descendants of Rájputs by marriages with lower castes. They hold large tracts of land in the southern portion of the District, and are now without exception Musalmáns, though retaining many Hindu customs. The tribe has laid aside its former lawless turbulence, and the Meo villages rank among the most careful and industrious communities in the Punjab. The Játs live chiefly in Palwál and the northern *parganás*. Very few of them have deserted their ancestral religion for the faith of Islám. Some of their villages worthily sustain the general high reputation of the tribe; but others, especially on the Delhi frontier, are reported as ill cultivated. The Ahírs number 70,623 souls. They form the bulk of the population in Rewári, and are justly esteemed for the skill and perseverance with which they have developed the naturally poor resources of that sterile region. The Bráhmans are returned at 55,402; Banias, 38,214; Gújars, 21,818; Rájputs, 12,867; and Ránghars, 5883. The two last-named tribes bear a bad name as indolent and thriftless cultivators, and swell the returns of crime far beyond their just proportion. The criminal class of Mínas, found only in Gurgáon District, are notorious for their thieving propensities. Deví, under the name of Sítala, as goddess of small-pox, forms the chief object of Hindu worship throughout the District. In 1875-76, the municipal towns numbered four, with populations as follows:— REWARI, 25,237; FIROZPUR (Ferozepore), 10,580; PALWAL, 13,542; FARRUKHNAGAR, 10,611; total population within municipal limits, 59,970. The other chief towns, with populations as returned in 1868, include—GURGAON, 3539; SOHNA, 7507; HODAL, 7032; and NOH, 4575. The headquarters town is only noticeable from the presence of the civil station.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1,267,335 acres, as many as 967,440 were returned in 1875-76 as under cultivation. From the remainder, 184,021 acres must be deducted for uncultivable waste, leaving a narrow margin of only 115,874 acres of available soil not yet brought under the plough. Wheat and barley form the principal staples of the *rabí* or spring harvest; while *joár* and *bájra*, the two common millets, make up the chief items among the *kharíf* or autumn crops. These millets compose the ordinary food of the people them-

selves, the wheat and higher cereals being universally reserved for exportation. Gram, oil-seeds, pulses, cotton, and tobacco are also important crops. Irrigation is not very generally practised. The Agra Canal, which draws its supplies from the Jumna some miles below Delhi, and traverses the eastern portion of the District, supplies a small angle with water; and dams on the hill torrents irrigate about an equal area at the foot of the tableland. With these exceptions, however, artificial irrigation can only be practised with great labour from wells, often of immense depth. The use of the Persian wheel is unknown, and water is drawn in leather buckets. The returns of 1875-76 give the area irrigated by State works at 2537 acres; by private enterprise, 135,462 acres; dependent upon the seasons, 829,405 acres. The acreage under the principal crops in the same year was returned as follows:—Wheat, 158,890 acres; barley, 169,894 acres; *joár*, 117,853 acres; *bájra*, 195,225 acres; gram, 95,602 acres; pulses, 151,380 acres; oil-seeds, 10,468 acres; cotton, 44,076 acres; and tobacco, 2507 acres. Village communities of the usual type own the soil in varying degrees of communal or individual proprietorship. Out of a total number of 1139 villages in 1873-74, only 237 retained the primitive form of joint tenure; in the remainder, the whole or some part of the land had been divided into definite portions for the separate sharers. Under all circumstances, the State holds the entire village responsible for the payment of the land revenue assessed upon it. By far the larger number of under tenants possess no rights of occupancy. Rents are almost invariably paid in kind, by division of the produce, the landlord receiving from one-fourth to one-half of the gross out-turn. Occasional agricultural labour is also paid in kind. Cash wages in 1875-76 ranged from 7½d. to 9d. per diem for skilled workmen, and from 3d. to 4½d. per diem for unskilled workmen. Prices of food-grains ruled as follows on 1st January 1876:—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; gram, 29½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9½d. per cwt.; *joár*, 33 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 5d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 25½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 5d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Owing to the deficiency of artificial irrigation, Gurgáon must always be exposed to great risk from drought. Seven periods of dearth have occurred since the disastrous year 1783, known throughout Upper India as the *San chálísa* famine—namely, in 1803, 1812, 1817, 1833, 1837, 1860, and 1869. In 1833 and 1837, many villages, according to report, lost their entire population through death and emigration. In 1869-70, the distress was chiefly confined to the crowd of starving immigrants from Rájputána, many of whom entered British territory in too emaciated a condition to permit of their being employed upon relief works. The autumn harvest of 1869 proved moderate in its yield, thus averting the extremities of famine endured

in some of the neighbouring Districts. Government organized efficient measures of relief, both gratuitously and by means of public works; and in September 1869, the total number of persons obtaining relief amounted to 8336. On 1st January 1870, wheat sold at 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.; barley at 16 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt.; and *bajrá* at 20½ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 5½d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The traffic of Gurgáon District centres entirely in the town of REWARI, which ranks as one of the chief trading emporiums in the Punjab. Its merchants transact a large part of the commerce between the States of Rájputána and the Northern Provinces of British India. Salt from the SAMBHAR Lake, together with iron, forms the principal import; while sugar and English piece-goods compose the staple items of the return trade. Hardware of mixed metal is the chief manufacturing industry. In 1871-72, the imports of Rewari were valued at £208,892, and the exports at £99,028. Cereals and pulses are produced in the District considerably beyond the needs of home consumption; but the traders hoard the surplus supply, and only part with it when high prices in some neighbouring market afford an unusually good opportunity for the seller. In ordinary years, very little export of grain takes place. NOH, FIROZPUR (FEROZEPORE), PALWAL, HODAL, and HASSANPUR are the chief minor marts for country produce. FARRUKHNAGAR is the entrepôt for the Sultanpuri salt, obtained by evaporation on the banks of the NAJAFGARH *jhíl*, both in this District and in Rohtak. The means of communication are not of the highest order. One good metalled road traverses the District, from Delhi to Muttra, but the lines of greatest mercantile importance are unmetalled, and become heavy and difficult during the rainy season. The Rájputána State Railway, however, now passes through the District, with stations at Gurgáon, Jhársa, Jatáoli, Kálipur, and Rewári. A branch line from Jhársa connects Farrukhnagar with the main system. In 1875-76, Gurgáon contained 45 miles of metalled and 741 miles of unmetalled road.

Administration.—The total revenue derived from the District in 1875-76 amounted to £111,885, of which £107,008 was contributed by the land-tax. The present settlement was set on foot in the year 1871-72. Besides the imperial revenue, an income of about £8000 is annually raised by local cesses, for expenditure upon works of public utility within the District. The administrative staff usually includes two covenanted civilians. In 1875-76, 13 civil and revenue judges had jurisdiction in the District, and 11 officers exercised magisterial powers. During the same year, the regular police force, including the municipal constabulary, numbered 605 men, yielding an average of 1 policeman to every 3·27 square miles of area and every 1140 of the population. This establishment is further supplemented by

the usual rural body of village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), whose numbers, however, are not on record. For the five years ending 1872, the District calendar showed a total of 26 murders, and 73 cases of dacoity and robbery with violence. The District jail at Gurgáon received 610 inmates in 1872. Education makes satisfactory progress. In 1875-76, the State supported or aided 66 schools, with a joint roll of 3560 pupils, being an increase of 980 upon the numbers returned in 1872. These figures show an average area of 30 square miles to each school, and 5·1 scholars per thousand of the population. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 5 *tahsíls*. The 4 municipal towns had a joint revenue of £5101 in 1875-76, being at the rate of 1s. 8½d. per head of the population within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The summer heat of Gurgáon reaches a great intensity. No neighbouring mountains or shady groves temper the scorching rays of the sun; while burning winds from the barren uplands of Rájputána sweep over it with full effect. No record of temperature, however, exists. The average annual rainfall for the eight years ending 1873-74 amounted to 23·52 inches. The dryness of the air is generally favourable to health, but small-pox is very prevalent. The total number of deaths recorded in the District during the year 1875 was 18,938, being at the rate of 27 per thousand of the population. In the towns, however, where registration can be more effectually controlled, the figures show much higher results, amounting to 53 per thousand at Rewári, and 48 per thousand at Farrukhnagar. The District contained 4 charitable dispensaries in the same year, which afforded relief to 18,034 persons, of whom 973 were in-patients.

Gurgáon.—Northern *tahsíl* of Gurgáon District, Punjab; consisting for the most part of a level cultivated plain.

Gurgáon.—Administrative headquarters of Gurgáon District, Punjab; situated on the Rájputána State Railway, distant 21 miles south of Delhi. Lat. 28° 27′ 30″ N., long. 77° 4′ E.; pop. (1868), 3539. The town scarcely deserves to rank higher than a country village, with an administrative importance from the presence of the civil station, which was removed hither from Bharawás in 1821. At the beginning of the present century, Gurgáon formed part of the estates held by the well-known Begam Samru of Sardhána; which lapsed on her death in 1836, and were incorporated with British territory. The place then served for some time as a military cantonment; and this circumstance, combined with the healthiness of the situation, led to its adoption as District headquarters. The civil authorities now occupy the old cantonment buildings. The station stands like an island in the midst of cultivated fields. The public buildings include a court-house and treasury, police court, *tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, staging bungalow, and *saráí*.

Gurjipárá.—Trading village in Rangpur District, Bengal; with an export of rice, paddy, and mustard.

Gurkhá.—Town in Nepál State; situated 53 miles west of Khatmandu, the capital. Lat. 27° 52′ N., long. 84° 28′ E. It was formerly the capital of the Gurkhás, or ruling race of Nepál, to whom it gave its name.

Gurpur.—River in South Kanara District, Madras; enters the sea 2 miles north of Mangalore, and, with the Nitrávati, forms the Mangalore Harbour.

Gurramkonda.—Town and ancient fort in Cuddapah District, Madras. Lat. 13° 46′ N., long. 78° 38′ E.; containing 394 houses and (1871) 1948 inhabitants. One of the most important fortresses in the Bálághát. It is supposed to have been first built by the Golconda kings, and is situated on the summit of a detached and almost inaccessible hill. It was the capital of Haidarábád (Hyderabad) Bálághat, one of the five circars (*sarkárs*) of the Karnatic, at the commencement of the 18th century. Afterwards, when held by a Poligár under the Kurpa (Cuddapah) Nawáb, it was of such importance that the tenure was purely military, and the governor had the privilege of coining money. When Mír Sáhib betrayed (1766) Sera, he received Gurramkonda (which had at some former time been held by his ancestors) as a Marhattá *jágír*. Two years later, he made it over to Haidar, his brother-in-law. In 1771, Sayyid Sháh, Haidar's general, surrendered it to Trimbak Rao. Tipú recaptured it in 1773. In 1791, the Nizám's forces, aided by a British battery under Captain Read, besieged Gurramkonda, and captured the lower fort, but the citadel held out till the peace, when the place was ceded to the Nizám. In 1799, it was transferred to the Company, with the rest of the District of Cuddapah.

Gursarái.—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces, and capital of a small *jágír* estate. Lat. 25° 36′ 55″ N., long. 79° 13′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 6368 souls. Lies on the Jaláun and Ságar road, 40 miles north-east of Jhánsi. The Rájá is a Deccani (Dakhini) Pandit, whose family settled in Bundelkhand under the Marhattá Peshwás. He ranks as an honorary magistrate, with large civil and revenue powers, and exercises independent jurisdiction on his own estates. The town consists in large part of brick-built houses and double-storied shops. An imposing fort, with buildings raised to a height of 250 feet, overlooks it from the west. Numerous retainers and followers of the Rájá swell the population of the town. Chief trade in sugar, imported from Hamírpur District. The estate comprises 63 surrounding villages.

Gurudwárá.—Town, Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. —*See* DEHRA.

Guru-Sikar.—The name given to the highest peak of Mount Abu, Rájputána; elevation, 5650 feet above sea level.—*See* ABU.

Guruvayúr.—Village in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 10° 36′ N., long. 76° 4′ E.; containing 1275 houses and (1871) 6703 inhabitants, chiefly Nambúri Bráhmans, Nairs, and high-caste Hindus. Notable for its large temples, destroyed by Tipú in 1784, and restored by the Zamorin 1794.

Guthni.—Town in Sáran District, Bengal, situated on the east bank of the Little Gandak river, 54 miles north-west of Chhaprá. Lat. 26° 9′ 45″ N., long. 54° 5′ E.; pop. (1872), 4379. Noted as being a principal seat of the sugar manufacture. The town possesses 4 sugar refineries, and has a large export trade. Fine *bázár*.

Guti.—Town, Bellary District, Madras.—*See* GOOTY.

Guwárich.—*Parganá* of Gonda District, Oudh. Bounded north by the Tírhi river and Gonda *parganá*; east by Digsár *parganá*; south by the Gogra river, separating it from Bára Bánki District; and west by Kurásar *parganá* in Bahráich. In the time of Suhel Deo, the head of the Rájput confederate princes who ousted the Muhammadan invaders under Sayyid Sálár Masáúd in 1032 A.D., Guwárich was included in the *parganá* of Rámgarh Gauriyá in the kingdom of Gaudá, which comprised the present Districts of Gonda, Basti, and Gorakhpur. It afterwards became inclnded in the Kurása *ráj*; and on the downfall of Achál Sinh (*vide* GONDA DISTRICT), it passed into the hands of Maháráj Sinh, an illegitimate son of the late Rájá, whose descendants are still in possession of the soil. Several rivers and streams intersect the *parganá*, which slopes from north-west to south-east, the lower levels being the most fertile. Area, 267 square miles, or 170,962 acres, of which 99,142 acres are cultivated, as follows:—Indian corn, 30,878 acres; rice, 20,822; wheat, 14,875; barley, 6055; gram, 3380; other produce, 23,132 acres. Government land revenue, £16,033. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 144,395; Muhammadans, 10,350; total, 164,745, viz. 89,820 males and 74,925 females. Number of villages and towns, 219; average density of population, 577 per square mile.

Guzerat (*Gujarát*).—The name given to the northern seaboard of the Bombay Presidency, extending from 20° to 24° 45′ N. lat., and from 69° to 74° 20′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by Rájputána, on the east by the spurs of the Vindhyá and Sátpurá ranges, on the south by the Konkan, and on the west by the sea. On the mainland, it comprises the British Districts of SURAT, BROACH, KAIRA, PANCH MAHALS, and AHMEDABAD, with a total area of 10,082 square miles, and a population (1872) of 2,810,522; together with the great but scattered territories of the Gáekwár of BARODA, and the Native States of the MAHI KANTA and REWA KANTA Agencies, PALANPUR, RADHANPUR, BALASINOR, CAMBAY, DANG, CHAURAR, BANSDA, PEINT, DHARAMPUR, THARAD, SACHIN, WASRAVI, etc. The term Guzerat is

sometimes also employed to include the peninsula of Káthiáwár, with its 180 petty States. Total area, inclusive of the peninsula of Káthiáwár, 41,536 square miles. For an account of the history, geography, etc. of Guzerat, the reader is referred to the articles on the various States and Districts mentioned above. Guzerat gives its name to the vernacular of Northern Bombay, viz. Gujaráthí, which forms one of the three great languages of that Presidency; the other two being Kanarese on the south coast, and Marathí in the central and southern regions.

Gwalior.—Native State in political relationship with the Central India Agency and the Government of India, the hereditary dominions of the great Marhattá chief, Sindhia. The State consists of several detached Districts; the principal one being bounded on the north-east by the Chambal, dividing it from the British Districts of Agra and Etáwah; on the east by Bundelkhand and Ságar (Saugor) District; on the south by the States of Bhopál and Dhar; on the west by those of Rájgarh, Jhaláwár, and Kotah; and on the north-west by the Chambal, which separates it from Karauli (Kerowlee) and Dholpúr in Rájputána. Previous to 1860, the Mahárájá Sindhia possessed territories south of the Narbadá (Nerbudda); but in that year and 1861, these were exchanged for lands of equal value on the Sind and Betwa rivers. The extreme points of the Gwalior territory lie between 22° 8′ and 26° 50′ N. lat., and between 74° 45′ and 79° 21′ E. long. The area of the whole State comprises 33,119 square miles, comprehending part of the ancient Province of Agra, and most of Málwá.

The extreme north-eastern part of Gwálior, adjoining Agra, is generally level, of no great fertility, and much cut up by deep precipitous ravines in the vicinity of the streams. A little farther south, in the vicinity of the town of Gwalior, the surface rises. The country is dotted over with small isolated hills, which start abruptly out of the level plain. One of them is the celebrated fortress of GWALIOR. The geological formation of these rocky eminences is a fine-grained sandstone, disposed in horizontal strata, and yielding an excellent building stone, for which purpose it can be hewn in slabs of great length and breadth. The other tract of Gwalior State, comprising a large portion of MALWA, is a plateau, having an average elevation of about 1500 feet, though there are some points rising greatly above that height, as in the instance of Shaizgarh in the Mandu range, which is 2628 feet above the sea. The general slope of the plateau is very gentle from the Mandu range towards the north or north-east, as indicated by the course of numerous streams flowing in those directions to the Chambal. The Mandu range, running east and west, forms the southern boundary of the plateau, sloping gently northwards towards it, and dipping precipitously southwards towards the Narbadá. The State is watered by numerous rivers. The NARBADA, flowing

west, forms the boundary of the southern part of the State. But by far the greater portion of the drainage of the territory is discharged into the CHAMBAL, which, receiving the waters of several minor tributaries, flows along the north-west frontier, separating Gwalior from Jáipur (Jeypore), Kerauli (Kerowlee), and Dholpur. Subsequently turning south-east, it forms the north-eastern boundary towards Agra and Etáwah, and joins the Jumna in the latter District. The Sind flows parallel to the Chambal, but farther to the east, and finally falls into the Jumna a short distance below the confluence of the Chambal with that river. The Kuwári, Asar, Sankh, and other lesser streams take their rise in the north of the State, and, after flowing in an easterly or north-easterly direction, fall into the Sind on its left bank. The south-western portion of Gwalior is noted for its abundant production of the Málwá opium of commerce. Other products—wheat, gram, pulses of various kinds, *joár* (Holcus sorghum), *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), *múg* (Phaseolus mungo), maize, rice, linseed and other oil-seeds, garlic, turmeric, ginger, sugar-cane, indigo, *áal* (Morinda multiflora) yielding a fine red dye. Tobacco of excellent quality, but in no great quantity, is raised in the vicinity of Bhilsá. Cotton is largely grown.

BURHANPUR is the site of a considerable manufacture of fine cottons and silks, and rich brocades. CHANDERI was formerly noted for its cotton fabrics, but the manufacture has decayed since the introduction of English piece-goods. Iron ore is raised and smelted in many places.

The imports consist principally of British woollens, cottons, silks, cutlery, Cashmere shawls, pearls from the Persian Gulf, Ceylon diamonds, and agates from Bundelkhand, gold, silver, mercury, copper, lead, and zinc. Opium is the principal export, sent to the coast by way of Bombay. Cotton is also largely sent to Bombay, and to the towns on the Jumna and Ganges. The remaining exports of any importance are tobacco, dyes, and iron. The Indore and Ajmere narrow-gauge railway, now (1878) in course of construction, will pass through the west of Gwalior State; while a railway on the broad gauge, to connect Gwalior town with Agra, is approaching completion.

In the dry and hot seasons the climate is not unhealthy, but during the rainy season fevers prevail, especially in the north. The range of the thermometer is unusually small, except during the latter part of the year, when great and sudden changes often take place. The cool season comprises the period between the beginning of November and the end of February; the hot season succeeds, and continues to the middle of June, when the periodical rains set in, and last to the close of September, the average fall being about 50 inches. In 1875, the rainfall was only 19·6 inches. During the sultry season the hot winds are comparatively mild, and of short duration, though the ther-

mometer sometimes rises to nearly 100° during the day; but the nights are invariably cool and refreshing.

Wild animals comprises the tiger, leopard, bear, wolf, hyæna, wild dog, jackal, fox, ounce, lynx, badger, ichneumon, civet, otter, rat, bat, mouse, wild hog, *nilgau* or blue bull, and various kinds of antelope, deer of several species, wild buffalo, ape, monkey, squirrel, porcupine, and hare. Of birds, there are the vulture, eagle, hawks of various kinds, kite, buzzard, owl, hornbill (Buceros), raven, crow, daws and pies, parrot, jay, cuckoo, humming-bird, wild goose, wild duck, pelican, cormorant, spoon-bill, stork, crane, heron, adjutant, curlew, snipe, bustard, floriken, peafowl, pheasant, partridge, quail, pigeon, dove, and sparrow. The rivers abound in fish, especially of the carp kind. Of snakes, there are the boa, water-snake, cobra, black spotted snake, spectacled snake, yellow-clouded snake, whip-snake, and leaping snake. The *magar* or round blunt snouted crocodile infests some of the rivers.

Population.—The population of the north-eastern part of the territory is of a mixed kind, comprising, besides the ruling order of Marhattás, Bundelas, Játs, and Rájputs, with some less distinctly defined divisions of Hindus and Muhammadans. Until the Marhattá inroads in the last century, the country was from an early period in the possession of the Muhammadan rulers of Delhi, and in no part of Gwalior do the Marhattás form any large proportion of the inhabitants. In the greater part of the southern and south-western parts, comprising a portion of Málwá, a very considerable section of the population is Hindu. There is perhaps no part of India where the tribes of Bráhmans are so various and their numbers so great. Rájputs exist in large numbers. The Muhammadan population is estimated at about a twentieth of the whole. Including the transfers to Sindhia under the treaty of 1860, the territories of Gwalior were, in 1875, estimated to contain a population of about 2,500,000 persons.

The total revenue of the State in 1875 was estimated at £1,200,000, including £783,890 derived from the land, and £147,020 from customs; the remainder consists of tributes from feudatories; and *jágír* and local taxes. The customs revenue is realized from transit duties on iron, tobacco, sugar, and salt (all other articles being free), and from *jágír* and local taxes. No transit duties are taken on those portions of the Agra and Bombay road or its branches which pass through the State, or on the roads connecting Gwalior with Etáwah, Farrukhábád, Datia, Jhánsi, and Kalpi. Education is afforded by 92 schools, attended by 3206 pupils. The average attendance at the Lashkár College in 1875 amounted to 548 persons. The present Prime Minister is Sir Ganpat Ráo Kharkái, K.C.S.I., who is assisted in the administration by 5 Náib Diwáns, for the several departments of revenue, civil, criminal, appeal, and public works.

History.—The Gwalior family, whose armies and chiefs have played so conspicuous a part in the history of India, and whose representative now rules over a State larger than Scotland and Wales united, and richer than some independent kingdoms, was founded by the Maharatta, Ranojí Sindhia, who was the slipper-bearer of Balají Peshwá at the beginning of the last century. His father was the hereditary *pátel* (head-man) of a Deccan village. Once in the household of the Peshwá, Ranojí's rise was rapid, and he soon found himself at the head of the bodyguard. After leading many Marhattá raids through Málwá into Hindustán, he was, at the time of his death, the acknowledged possessor of lands which still form part of the Gwalior State. Ranojí was succeeded by his second son, Mahádají Sindhia, whose ability as a statesman and a soldier has rarely been surpassed. Mahádají was conspicuous for his gallantry at the battle of Pánipat in 1761, being amongst the last to leave that field—so disastrous to the Marhattás. Probably the events of that fight led him to see the value of discipline, for when the Marhattá tide of fortune again set in there was a change of system. He turned his Marhattá horse into disciplined infantry with sword and matchlock, and formed them into brigades; he paid great attention to his artillery, and placed his entire army under the command of French and English adventurers. Though nominally the servant of the Peshwá, he was practically independent, and made his State one of the strongest in India. The Delhi Emperor sought his protection; the Rájput chiefs, with hosts of the best cavalry India could produce, fought in vain against his battalions. He negotiated and guaranteed the treaty at Salbái (Salbye) (1783) between the Peshwá and the British Government. Mahádají was succeeded in 1794 by his grand-nephew, Daulat Ráo Sindhia. During the distractions which followed the death of Madhu Ráo Náráyan Peshwá, Daulat Ráo gained an ascendancy, which enabled him to place Bájí Ráo in power, to usurp most of the possessions of Holkár, and to secure to himself the fortress of Ahmednagar in the Deccan, which gave him the entrance into the territories both of the Peshwá and the Nizám. The power of Daulat Ráo, whose army was commanded by French officers, had now become dangerous to the British Government. When by the treaty of Bassein the British Government recovered its influence at Poona by the establishment of a subsidiary force, Daulat Ráo Sindhia entered into a league with Ragojí Bhonslá Rájá of Berar, to defeat the objects of the treaty; and the allied chiefs in 1803 invaded the territory of the Nizám, which was at that time under the protection of the East India Company. On the 23d of September in that year, the Marhattá army was attacked at ASSAYE by a British force of about an eighth of its number, commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley, subsequently Duke of Wellington, and, after a prolonged and fiercely-contested battle, was

totally defeated. The overthrow of Sindhia's military resources in the Deccan was completed by the defeat which the confederated Marhattás received from Sir Arthur Wellesley at Argaum, in Berar, on the 28th of November 1803.

The destruction of the Marhattá power to the north of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) had in the meantime been not less signally effected by General (afterwards Lord) Lake, the British commander-in-chief, who in the beginning of September 1803 stormed Alígarh; and a few days afterwards, nearly opposite Delhi, totally defeated Sindhia's disciplined army, commanded by the Frenchman Bourquin, and effectually cleared the Doáb of the Marhattás. Delhi was immediately occupied by the victorious army. Before the close of the same year, Agra also yielded after a brief attempt at defence. General Lake, indefatigably following up his advantages, a few weeks afterwards destroyed the remnant of Sindhia's disciplined force at Laswári (Laswaree). The power of Daulat Ráo being thus completely broken, he was compelled to sue for peace, and to sign the treaty of Sarji Anjengáon, by which he resigned his conquered territories in Hindustán and south of the Ajanta Hills, with the exception of some hereditary villages. The discontent which Daulat Ráo felt at the determination to deprive him of Gohad and Gwalior, under this treaty, induced him to enter into a correspondence with Holkár, which nearly led to a fresh rupture with the British. Among other acts of hostility, he attacked and plundered the Resident's camp, and detained the Resident a prisoner. The change, however, in the policy of Government on the arrival of Lord Cornwallis, who, independently of any reference to the settlement of differences with Sindhia, deemed it inexpedient to retain possession of Gohad and Gwalior, led to the renewal of negotiations on the basis of the restoration of these territories. A treaty was accordingly concluded on 22d November 1805, which confirmed the treaty of Sarji Anjengáon in part, but ceded Gwalior and Gohad to Sindhia, and constituted the Chambal the northern boundary of his territory; the British Government bound itself not to make treaties with Udáipur (Oodeypore), Jodhpur, Kotah, or any chiefs tributary to Sindhia in Málwá, Mewár, or Márwár, or to interfere in any arrangements he might make regarding them. Daulat Ráo so highly appreciated the advantages arising from the strength of the fort of Gwalior, that he fixed his residence in a permanent camp at the base of the rock, and since that time it has always been considered the capital of the State, to which it has also given its name.

On the outbreak of the Pindárí war in 1817, the plundering hordes who had been generally hangers-on to the Marhattá camps during their campaigns in the latter half of the 18th century, looked for support to Sindhia, as the most powerful of the Marhattá princes. Daulat Ráo was also subjected to strong solicitations from the Peshwá, who was

endeavouring to resuscitate the old Marhattá confederacy. But the Marquis of Hastings, then Governor-General, promptly advanced with a formidable army to the river Chambal, and so far overawed Sindhia that a treaty was executed abrogating the article of the treaty of 1805, which restrained the British Government from forming engagements with the Rájput States, and binding Sindhia to co-operate with the British against the Pindárís, and also to give up the forts of Asírgarh and Hindia for three years as a security for the lines of communication, and as a guarantee for the performance of his engagements. The fortress of Asírgarh was not, however, surrendered, and it became necessary to occupy it by force. In the captured fort a letter was found, in which Sindhia directed the governor to obey all orders of the Peshwá, who, by attacking the Residency at Poona, had declared war with the British Government. In consequence of this want of good faith, Sindhia was required permanently to cede the fort of Asírgarh.

Daulat Ráo died at Gwalior in 1827 without an heir, and without having adopted a successor. On his deathbed, he left the State and succession in the hands of the British Government, indicating a wish that his younger widow, Báiza Bái, might be treated with consideration. The death of Daulat Ráo was followed by internal discord throughout the State. The succession of a boy of Sindhia's family, Múgat Ráo, to whom it was thought the wishes of Daulat Ráo turned, was admitted by the British Government, under the regency of Báiza Bái. The young Mahárájá was subsequently married to the granddaughter of Daulat Ráo and Báiza Bái. He took the name of Janakjí Sindhia. But Báiza Bái's regency came to a sudden collapse in 1833. Jealous of power and headstrong, her treatment of the young chief at last became intolerable, and he broke away from her, supported by a large portion of the troops, who now found themselves masters of the situation. The wealth of Báiza Bái was enormous, and it was used for intrigue and dissension without scruple, until it became necessary to remove her from Gwalior. During the whole of the reign of Janakjí, although the State was at complete peace with external foes, there was constant turbulence within the borders. Janakjí Sindhia died in 1843, without issue, and without having expressed any wish in regard to the succession, though repeatedly urged to do so by the Resident. His widow, with the concurrence of the chief nobles, adopted Bajirát Ráo, a lad eight years of age, belonging to a distant branch of the Sindhia family. The British Government recognised the adoption, and Bajirát Ráo, under the name of Bájí Ráo Sindhia, succeeded, and is the present ruler. Early in the regency, disturbances took place, and the advance of British troops on Gwalior became necessary to restore order. This, however, was not effected without hard fighting. Two battles, Mahárájpur and Panniar, were fought on the same day—the 29th

December 1843—between the British forces and the mutinous army. They both resulted in the total defeat of the insurgent troops. The young chief was replaced in power by the British Government. The Gwalior army was disbanded, and the force was reduced to a fixed number—5000 cavalry, 3000 infantry, and 32 guns. Indemnity was taken for the war expenses, and an annual provision of £180,000 assigned to the British Government for the maintenance of a force to preserve order. Thus matters continued till the Mutiny of 1857, when the Gwalior contingent and Sindhia's army again revolted. The Mahárájá, then but a youth, displayed courage and unswerving loyalty to the British Government. In June 1858, he was deserted by his troops on the approach of the rebels under Tántia Topí, and he and his minister, Dinkar Ráo, were compelled to flee to Agra. On the 19th June, Gwalior was retaken by Sir Hugh Rose's force, and the Mahárájá was re-established in his palace. In recognition of his services, the Government conferred upon him the right of adoption, together with lands yielding a revenue of £30,000, and permitted an increase to his army, which now stands at 48 guns, 6000 cavalry, and 5000 infantry. The Mahárájá is a general in the British army, a Knight Grand Cross of the Bath, and Knight Grand Commander of the Star of India. He is entitled permanently to a salute of 19 guns in British territory, but to a salute of 21 guns in his own territory. The present Mahárájá enjoys a personal salute of 21 guns in British territory also.

Gwalior.—The capital of Gwalior State, and fortress residence of the Mahárájá Sindhia; situated in lat. 26° 13′ 0″ N., and long. 78° 12′ 0″ E., 65 miles south from Agra, and 277 north-west of Allahabad. No new materials are available in the Foreign Office, Calcutta, for this article; and I have therefore to compile it partly from Thornton (1862) and Fergusson (*History of Indian Architecture*, 1876). Gwalior city has a threefold interest. First, as a very ancient seat of Jain worship; second, for its example of palace architecture of the best Hindu period (1486-1516); third, as the fortress capital of one of the greatest native chiefs of India. A considerable British force is posted in its immediate neighbourhood; but this aspect will be treated of in a separate article on the Morar Cantonments. The fort of Gwalior stands on an isolated rock of ochreous sandstone formation, capped at places with basalt. The face of the fort is perpendicular, and where the rock is naturally less precipitous it has been scarped, and in some portions the upper parts overhang the lower. Its greatest length from north-east to south-west is a mile and a half, and the greatest breadth, 300 yards. The rock at the northern end attains its maximum height of 342 feet. On its eastern side are sculptured several colossal figures in bold relief. A rampart, accessible by a steep road, and farther up by huge steps cut out of the rock, surrounds the fort.

This vast staircase, the principal entrance of which is known as the 'Elephant's' Gate, from the figure of that animal being sculptured above it, is protected on the outer side by a massive stone wall, and is swept by guns. The citadel stands at the north-eastern corner of the enclosure, and presents a very picturesque appearance. The old town of Gwalior, which is of considerable size, but irregularly built, and extremely dirty, lies at the eastern base of the rock. It contains the tomb of Muhammad Ghaus, which was erected during the early part of Akbar's reign. Fergusson thus describes the building:—'It is a square measuring 100 feet each way, exclusive of the hexagonal towers, which are attached to the angles. The chamber of the tomb itself is a hall 43 feet square, with the angles cut off by pointed arches, so as to form an octagon, on which the dome rests. Around this square building is a gallery, 20 feet wide between the piers, enclosed on all sides by a screen of the most exquisite tracery in pierced stonework, with a projecting porch on each face.'

Jain Remains.—There are two remarkable Hindu temples in Gwalior. 'One,' says Mr. Fergusson, 'known as the Sas Báhu, is understood to be a Jain erection, and seems to be so designated and dedicated to Padmanáth, the sixth Tirthankar. General Cunningham doubts this adscription, in consequence of the walls being adorned with bas-reliefs, belonging certainly to the Vaishnav and Siva sects. This temple was finished apparently in A.D. 1093, and, though dreadfully ruined, is still a most picturesque fragment. What remains is the cruciform porch of a temple which, when complete, measured 100 feet from front to rear, and 63 feet across the arms of the porch. Of the sanctuary, with its *sikra*, nothing is left but the foundation; but the porch, which is three storeys in height, is constructively entire, though its details—and principally those of its roof—are very much shattered. An older Jain temple is described by General Cunningham; but as it was used as a mosque it is more likely that it is a Muhammadan building, although made up of Jain details.' Another temple in the fortress of Gwalior is called the *Telí-ka-Mandir* or 'Oilman's Temple.' It is 60 feet square, with a portico on the east projecting about 11 feet, and terminates in a ridge of about 30 feet in extent. 'The building,' says Mr. Fergusson, 'was originally dedicated to Vishnu, but afterwards converted to the worship of Siva. There is no inscription or any tradition from which its date can be gathered, but on the whole I am inclined to place it in the 10th or 11th century.'

The most striking part of the Jain remains at Gwalior is a series of caves or rock-cut sculptures which are excavated in the rock on all sides, and amount, when taken together, to hardly less than a hundred, great and small. Most of them are mere niches to contain statues, though some are cells that may have been originally intended for residences. One curious fact regarding them is, that, according to inscriptions, they

were all excavated within the short period of about thirty-three years, between A.D. 1441 and A.D. 1474. Some of the figures are of colossal size; one, for instance, is 57 feet high, which is greater than any other in the north of India.

Hindu Palace-Architecture.—The palace built by Mán Sinh (A.D. 1486-1516) forms the most remarkable and interesting example of early Hindu work in India. Its external dimensions, according to Mr. Fergusson, are 300 feet by 160 feet; and on the east side it is 100 feet high, having two underground storeys looking over the country. On all its faces the flat surface is relieved by tall towers of singularly pleasing design, crowned by cupolas covered with domes of gilt copper when Bábar saw them in 1527. Mán Sinh's successor, Vikramáditya, added another palace, of even greater extent, to this one in 1516; and Jahángír and Sháh Jahán added palaces to these two,—the whole making up a group of edifices unequalled for picturesqueness and interest by anything of their class that exists in Central India. Among the apartments in the palace was one called the *Báradári*, supported on 12 columns, and 45 feet square, with a stone roof, which was one of the most beautiful apartments of its class anywhere to be found. It was, besides, singularly interesting from the expedients to which the Hindu architect was forced to resort to imitate the vaults of the Moslems. They had not then learned to copy them, as they did at the end of that century at Bindrában (Brindaban) and elsewhere under the guidance of the tolerant Akbar. Of the buildings, however, which so excited the admiration of the Emperor Bábar, probably little now remains. The Moslems added to the palaces of the Hindus, and spared their temples and the statues of the Jains.

Rock Fortress.—According to Wilford, the fort of Gwalior was built in 773 by Surya Sen, the Rájá of the neighbouring country. In 1023, it was unsuccessfully besieged by Mahmúd of Ghazní; in 1196, Gwalior was captured by Mahmúd Ghori; in 1211, it was lost by the Musalmáns, but recovered in 1231, after a blockade of a year by Shams-ud-dín Altamsh, the Slave King of Delhi. Narsinh Rái, a Hindu chief, taking advantage of the trouble produced by the invasion of Tamerlane in 1398, seized Gwalior, which was not regained by the Musalmáns until 1519, under Ibráhim Lodi, the Pathán monarch of Delhi. In 1526, Bábar took the fortress by stratagem; and in 1543, after the expulsion of his son Humáyun, it fell into the hands of his rival, Sher Sháh; but after the re-establishment of Humáyun, Gwalior was, in 1556, recovered by his successor Akbar, who made it a state prison for captives of rank. In the dismemberment of the Delhi Empire, Gwalior was seized by the Ját Ráná of Gohad. Subsequently it was garrisoned by Sindhia, from whom it was wrested in 1780 by the forces of the East India Company. Transferred by the British Government to the Ráná

of Gohad, Gwalior was, in 1784, recovered by Madhají Sindhia, from whose successor, Daulat Ráo Sindhia (1794-1827), it was taken in 1803, but restored again in 1805. After Daulat Ráo's death in 1827, his widow governed as guardian of her adopted son, Janakjí, till 1833, when he assumed the Government. He died in 1843 without an heir. A contest took place between his uncle and the adopted relative of his widow. A revolution was impending, and the Government decided to interfere. Our troops crossed the Chambal, and unexpectedly found the forces of Gwalior drawn up at Mahárájpur, a few miles distant from the fortress. A battle ensued on the 29th December 1843, resulting in the complete overthrow of the Marhattás. On the same day, another victory was gained by the British troops at Panniar. The British contingent stationed in the town was increased, and affairs were placed on a peaceful footing. The last event of historical importance was the revolt of the Gwalior contingent in October 1857.—*See* GWALIOR STATE.

Gwe-khyo.—River in the north of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It rises in the Padouk spur, 20 miles west of the main range of the Pegu Yomas; after a south-westerly course, it joins the Naweng near the village by the same mouth as the Eng-gún and Khyoung-tsouk. Near its source the bed is rocky, but lower down, sandy and muddy; it is unnavigable. The trees most common on its banks are *eng* and *htien* (Nauclea sp.).

Gyaing.—River in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It is formed by the junction of the Hlaing-bhwai and Houngtharaw near Gyaing village, in lat. 16° 34′ N., and long. 98° 3′ E. The united waters flow west for 45 miles, and fall into the Salwín at Maulmain. The Gyaing is a broad but shallow river, containing numerous sandbanks; it is navigable by boats all the year round. The most important places on the banks are—Kado, at the mouth, the Government timber-revenue station; Zatha-byeng; Tarana; and Dhammatha.

Gyaing.—Revenue circle at the junction of the Gyaing and Attaran rivers, in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2983; land revenue, £350; capitation tax, £215.

Gyaing Attaran.—Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated between 15° 59′ and 16° 40′ N. lat., and between 97° 41′ and 97° 55′ E. long. It occupies the valley of the Attaran river, and extends from the hills forming its southern boundary northwards to the Gyaing. Above the junction of the Zamí and Wengraw, which unite to form the Attaran, are large tracts of valuable forest land. The timber can only be felled by licence. Teak was formerly very plentiful, but the supply has diminished considerably, owing to the indiscriminate felling in the first years after the British occupation. (*See* AMHERST DISTRICT.) The headquarters of the township are at Nga-bye-ma (pop. in 1876, 233), on the Attaran. A few miles above is

Rebor, famed for its hot springs. Gyaing Attaran is divided into 15 circles. Pop. (1876-77), 20,496; gross revenue, £4318.

Gyaing-than-lweng.—Division of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated between 16° 33′ and 16° 56′ N. lat., and between 97° 38′ and 98° 0′ E. long. The three chief rivers are the Salwín, the Hlaing-bhwai, and the Gyaing, with their tributaries. In the west and south-west, the country consists of an extensive plain traversed by parallel ridges of limestone rocks, having a general north and south direction, with intervening narrow and cultivated valleys. Portions of this tract are occasionally inundated by the Salwín. In the east and north-east of the township, there is a series of low laterite hills, open bamboo forests, and small low-lying grassy plains. The southern part is a long, narrow rice-producing area. In the more hilly portion, where water and fodder are plentiful all the year round, cattle are extensively bred, and are sold to purchasers who come from Tha-htún and Pegu, and other places west of the Tsittoung. Cattle are imported by the Shans; the chief export is rice. Gyaing-than-lweng contains 16 revenue circles; the headquarters station is Za-tha-byeng. Pop. (1876-77), 39,524; revenue, £10,327.

H

Hab.—River on the western frontier of Sind, and for some distance the boundary between British territory and Balúchistán. It rises in Khelát (lat. 26° 22′ 30″ N., long. 67° 16′ E.), flows south-east for 25 miles, then due south for 50 miles, and then south-west, till it falls into the Arabian Sea, in lat. 24° 52′ N., long. 66° 42′ E., after a total length of about 100 miles. Except the Indus, it is the only permanent river in Sind. It abounds in fish. A proposal to supply Karáchí (Kurrachee) with drinking water from the Hab has been before the Bombay Government since 1867.

Habiganj.—Village in the south-west of Sylhet District, Assam, on the Barák river. An important centre for the export of rice to Calcutta. In 1876-77, 43,200 *maunds* of rice and 194,600 *maunds* of paddy were exported, and £10,000 of European piece-goods were imported. Habiganj forms a striking example of how a trading town, without any other local advantages, now springs up in Bengal, in consequence of possessing facilities for transport. It is situated on the outskirts of a vast dismal region of swamps and inundated rice-fields. The town is to a large extent built on piles (or, at any rate, was so when I visited it in 1873). The houses for the most part consisted of mats stretched on bamboos, and a busy fleet of cargo-boats loaded or unloaded at each of the principal merchants' doors.

Hábrá.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated on the Tilái river, a tributary of the Brahmaputra. Lat. 25° 36′ 3″ N., long. 88° 57′ 50″ E. Large river mart, trading in rice, tobacco, gunny cloth, sugar, jute, etc.

Hadarnaru.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore. Pop. (1871), 1523. It formed the scene of a chivalrous story of the 14th century, and is regarded as the cradle of the present ruling family.

Háfizábád.—Southern *tahsíl* of Gujránwála District, Punjab, lying between 31° 32′ and 32° 20′ 30″ N. lat., and between 73° 11′ 30″ and 74° 7′ 15″ E. long.; consisting for the most part of a dry and uncultivated upland plain. Area, 1440 square miles; pop. (1868), 176,986; number of villages, 561; area under cultivation, 172,630 acres.

Háfizábád.—Ancient town in Gujránwála District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Distant from Gujránwála 32 miles west; formerly a place of great importance, and mentioned in the *Aín-i-Akbari* as headquarters of a *mahál*.

Haggri.—River of Madras.—*See* HUGRI.

Haiátpur.—Town in Maldah District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Ganges. Lat. 25° 16′ 20″ N., long. 87° 54′ 21″ E. The town occupies an important situation at the spot where the waters of the Ganges have effected a junction with the Kálindrí, and is the largest river mart in the District. It lost a good deal of its trade some years ago, when the main stream of the Ganges shifted its channel several miles from the town; but the stream has recently returned to its old bed, and commerce has revived.

Haidarábád (*Hyderabad*, or the Nizám's Dominions).—A Native State or feudatory kingdom, roughly co-extensive with the Deccan (*Dakshin*) or central plateau of Southern India, which takes its name from its capital, HAIDARABAD CITY. 'The form of the territory, inclusive of the HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS, known as Berar, is that of a trapezium. Its base is about 420 miles in a direction from north-east to south-west, from Hampaságar in lat. 15° 10′ N., long. 76° E., to Malkálghari in lat. 17° 49′ N., long. 81° 30′ E.; its north-eastern side extends from south-east to north-west a distance of 390 miles, from Malkálghari, above mentioned, to Melghát in lat. 21° 41′ N., long. 77° 15′ E.; its north-western, in a direction from north-east to south-west, a distance of 220 miles from Melghát, as above, to Phúltamba, lat. 19° 47′ N., long. 74° 40′ E.; and the south-western, a distance of 330 miles from Phúltamba to Hampaságar. Though such is the general outline of the country, the boundaries are marked by numerous sinuosities, causing them to deviate greatly from right lines. The territory lies between lat. 15° 10′ to 21° 41′ N., and long. 74° 40′ to 81° 31′ E. It is 475 miles in length from south-west to north-east, and about the same distance in breadth.' The area of Berar is

17,728 square miles, that of the remaining portion of the Nizám's Dominions is estimated at about 80,000 square miles; the total area of the whole State being thus about 98,000 square miles. 'It is bounded on the north and north-east by the Central Provinces; on the south and south-east by territory subject to the Presidency of Madras; on the west by territory subject to the Presidency of Bombay. Within the western part are some small isolated British possessions.'

As Haidarábád is one of the leading Native States, the following article has been drawn up in the Foreign Office, Calcutta. The authorities there have deemed it expedient to use as their basis the article prepared by Mr. Edward Thornton under the directions of, and from materials furnished by, the East India Company. But such new information as was available has been added, with a view to bringing it up to date. The inverted commas refer to Mr. Thornton's work.

Physical Aspect.—'Haidarábád is a tract of considerable elevation, averaging 1250 feet above the level of the sea, and some granite summits attain a height of 2500 feet. The elevation of the fort of Golconda, in the city of Haidarábád, has been ascertained to be 2024 feet above sea level. With the exception of the valley of the Tápti at the northern extremity of the territory, which is bounded on the north by the Vindhyá range and on the south by the high land of the Godávari, the whole drainage of the country is either from west to east or from north-west to south-east, discharging into the Bay of Bengal by the channels of the Godávari and the Kistna. The drainage of the valley of the Tápti, flowing westward, falls into the Gulf of Cambay.' This wide expanse of country presents much variety of surface and feature. In some parts it is mountainous, wooded, and picturesque; in others, flat or undulating. The champaign lands are of all descriptions, including many rich and fertile plains, much good land not yet brought under cultivation, and numerous tracts too sterile ever to be cultivated at all.

'*The geological formations* are on a large scale; in the north-west being of the great volcanic formation extending through the greater part of the Deccan, consisting principally of trap, but in some parts basalt. In the middle, southern, and south-western parts, the greater part of the country is overlaid with gneissic formations. In the north-east, along the right bank of the Godávari, there is much sandstone, some of it carboniferous.' Near the junction of the Penganga with the Wardha, and in the valley of the latter river, there are coal-fields. Those which have been examined over a small area near Sasti and Páoni show an average of 40 feet in thickness. The quality of the coal hitherto mined is inferior to that of Ráníganj, but good enough for railway purposes. Iron ore is found in the same neighbourhood, also limestone and *kankar*, or nodular limestone, at Kamaram in the extreme east; and 100 miles north-east of Ellore there is also a small coal-field. At Sháh-

ábád, near the junction of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway with the Nizám's State Railway, are quarries of excellent limestone, which are extensively worked for a considerable distance along the line of the latter railway. The stone found is of two colours, grey and black, and takes a polish almost equal to marble. It is now imported to Haidarábád city, and exported elsewhere in large quantities for building purposes, for which it is well suited from its regular cleavage and the ease with which it can be worked.

Rivers.—The Haidarábád territory is, on the whole, well watered, rivers being numerous, and tanks or artificial pieces of water very abundant. The GODAVARI, rising on the eastern declivity of the Western Gháts, near Násik in the British District of that name, takes a course south-east for about 90 miles to Phúltamba, where it first touches on this territory, and continues to flow along the border south-eastward for 70 miles to Mungi, in lat. 19° 27′ N., long. 75° 30′ E. Here it enters Haidarábád territory, through which it holds a course nearly easterly for about 160 miles, to the vicinity of Lasona, in lat. 19° 7′ N., long. 77° 5′ E. At that place, it receives on the left side the Dudna river, which flows from the north-east and has a considerable stream after its junction with the Púrna river. About 85 miles lower down, in lat. 18° 48′ N., long. 77° 55′ E., it receives on the right side the Manjira. It thence continues to hold a course generally easterly for about 190 miles, to Kuláisar, in lat. 18° 52′ N., long 79° 53′ E., where, on the left, it receives the Pranhíta, a large river from the north. After the confluence turning south-east, it flows for about 155 miles in that direction along the south-western base of the mountains of Bastar to Kottúr, in lat. 17° 29′ N., long. 81° 29′ E., where it passes into Godávari District of the Madras Presidency. Below Kuláisar, it forms the north-eastern boundary of Haidarábád territory. Thus the total length of this great river, along the border and through the territory, is about 600 miles, for above 200 of which it is navigable from June to February. The WARDHA, rising in the hills of Betúl and Chhindwára, Districts of the Central Provinces, flows south-west for a few miles, and first touching on this territory at Gudra, in lat. 21° 35′ N., long. 78° 25′ E., thence flows towards the south-east 170 miles towards Chanda. In lat. 19° 55′ N., long. 79° 15′ E., it receives on the right side the Penganga, a large river from the west, which for the greater part of its course forms the boundary between East Berar and the more southern portions of the Nizám's Dominions. After the junction with the Penganga, the Wardha continues to flow in a south-easterly direction for 60 miles, and in lat. 19° 37′ N., long 79° 15′ E., on the left bank receives the Wainganga, from the north. Below the confluence, the united stream, now called the PRANHITA, flows in a tortuous direction, but generally south, for about 80 miles to Kuláisar, in

lat. 18° 52′ N., long. 69° 53′ E. This stream, through nearly its whole length, whether denominated the Wardha or the Pranhíta, marks the boundary between this territory and the Central Provinces. It is navigable for about 170 miles. The KISTNA or KRISHNA, rising near Mahábaleshwar, in the Western Gháts, holds a course south-east for about 320 miles to lat. 16° 10′ N., long. 76° 18′ E., where it touches, and 10 miles farther passes into, this territory, through which it flows in a direction generally north-east for about 75 miles to Kadlur in lat. 16° 24′ N., long. 77° 20′ E., where on the left bank it receives the Bhima from the north-west, and is soon after spanned by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway bridge. From near this point the river, turning south-east, flows 80 miles in that direction to its confluence with the Tungabhadra in lat. 15° 58′ N., long. 78° 19′ E., where it turns north-east and flows 180 miles to lat. 16° 50′ N., long. 80° 10′ E., at which point it passes into Kistna (Krishna) District of the Madras Presidency. From the confluence to the point last named, it forms part of the south-eastern boundary of Haidarábád territory. Thus its total length of course connected with this territory is 345 miles; but in consequence of the ruggedness of its bed, it is of little use for navigation. The TUNGABHADRA, formed by the junction of the rivers Tunga and Bhadra in Mysore, flows north-eastward, and at Múdlapur, in lat. 15° 8′ N., long. 76° 1′ E., first touches this territory, along the south-eastern boundary of which it flows, separating it from the Madras Districts of Bellary and Karnúl (Kurnool) for a distance of 200 miles, to its confluence with the Krishna. Many other streams (considerable rivers during the periodical rains, but much reduced in volume at other times of the year) discharge into these main channels of drainage. Tanks are, as before observed, numerous, and some of them are of very great size, as that at Pakhal, which is at least 30 miles in circuit. They are generally formed by throwing an embankment across the lower end of a valley, and thus causing the accumulation of the water of such streams as may flow into it.

'*The climate* may be considered in general good; and as there are no arid, bare deserts, similar to those of Rájputána and some other tracts of Northern India, the hot winds are less felt. In the vicinity of the city of Haidarábád, the mean temperature indoors, according to observations made at sunrise, at two o'clock in the afternoon, and at sunset, for one year, was—in January, 74½° F.; February, 76¼°; March, 84°; April, 91½°; May, 93°; June, 88°; July, 81°; August, 80¼°; September, 79°; October, 80°; November, 76½°; and December, 74½°; giving as an annual mean 81½°. Ophthalmic diseases are prevalent in the sandstone district. The wells in general yield impure, unpalatable water, productive of disease, especially the dracunculus or guinea-worm, from which those who use the water from tanks or streams are exempt.'

The annual fall of rain is estimated at from 28 to 32 inches at Haidarábád; this occurs principally during the south-west monsoon between June and October. In the north-west monsoon, there is a fall of only 4 to 7 inches. The winds are generally westerly in June, July, August, and September; during October, November, December, January, and February they blow from the east; and in March, April, and May the north-westerly breezes are frequent.

Animals.—Horses adapted for military or general purposes are not reared in the same number as formerly in the Nizám's Dominions. The chief mart for Deccan-bred horses is a fair at Malegáon in Bídar District, about 160 miles from Haidarábád and 200 from Poona. There is also a horse *bázár* near the capital, which is open throughout the year; and is resorted to by merchants from almost every quarter of Asia, with strings of elephants, horses, and camels.

Agriculture.—'The soil is in general fertile, though in some parts it consists of *chilka*, a red and gritty mould, little fitted, from the coarseness of its particles, for purposes of agriculture. Resembling this, but composed of particles more minute, is *lal-zamín*, a soil also of a reddish hue, and considered by Walker to be formed of the remains of broken-down ant-hills, which are surprisingly numerous in this country. "Thus," observes the writer just referred to, "we see that those insects, usually looked upon as troublesome and destructive pests, are not without their use in a grand natural operation. The peculiar acid (the formic), which is their chief constituent, acts upon the alkali and lime, and most probably on the silica of the rock debris, pulverizing it, and facilitating, in all probability, fresh combinations. The soil, when manured, is fitted for the reception of all kinds of crops, without reference to season." Though less extensive than the kinds just enumerated, the *regar* or black cotton-soil occurs in many places, and is esteemed the best of any, and, as indicated by the epithet above applied to it, peculiarly suited for the cultivation of cotton. It requires no manure, except that left by sheep generally fed upon it when under fallow previous to cultivation. This is, however, an important resource, as flocks of sheep are everywhere to be seen. There is also a soil denominated *taláo-ka-zamín*, a black earth, dug from the bottoms of tanks; but not much prized, being a stiff clay and containing a profusion of small fresh-water shells. Its extreme tenacity is found unfavourable to vegetation, which is still further thwarted by a large impregnation of carbonate of soda. This, however, is collected in great quantities for manufacturing and commercial purposes. All those soils effervesce with acids, thereby indicating that they contain carbonate of lime. Throughout this territory the ground, wherever left uncultivated, even but for a year or two, becomes covered with a low jungle, composed chiefly of the Cassia auriculata and Zizyphus microphylla. In process of time, the appear-

ance of the jungle is enlivened by the growth of numerous trees, of which the principal are Butea frondosa, Bombax heptaphyllum, Erythrina indica, Hyperanthera moringa, Cassia fistula, Anona reticulata, Melia azadirachta, Bauhinia parviflora, Capparis trifolia, Ficus indica, Ficus religiosa, Bombax gossipium, Feronia elephantum, and several species of Acacia. The toddy palm, Borassus flabelliformis, and Phœnix sylvestris, are extensively cultivated on account of their sap, which is drawn off, and fermented into an intoxicating beverage. The cocoa-nut tree cannot be brought to high perfection, even with the greatest care, accompanied by the most favourable circumstances; and in consequence, its cultivation is very circumscribed. Mango and tamarind trees occur in great numbers about the villages. The betel vine is also cultivated, but in no great quantities. The principal grain crops are rice (of which there are no less than eight varieties), wheat, maize of various kinds, *joár* (Holcus sorghum), *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), *rágí* (Cynosurus corocanus); of oil plants—mustard, Sesamum orientale, and Ricinus communis or castor-oil plant; of leguminous growths, — Dolichos lablab, Dolichos gladiatus, Phaseolus mungo, *chenna* (Cicer arietinum). Melons, cucumbers, gourds, and some other cucurbitacea are largely grown, and form important articles of diet. The gardens produce onions, garlic, carrots, radishes, potatoes, sweet potatoes, coriander, ginger, turmeric, and various kinds of amaranth used as pot-herbs. Tobacco is cultivated, but not to a great extent. Cotton, indigo, and sugar-cane are the more important objects of the agriculturist's care. *Al* (Morinda citrifolia) and *chayrút* (Oldenlandia umbellata), valuable dyes, occur wild, and are also cultivated.' The cotton-producing capabilities of the country are well known. The produce of Kunar Idlábád District, which chiefly finds its way to the Hinganghát market, is greatly valued, and fetches a high price. In 1875, there were no mills or manufactories in the territory; but a cottonspinning factory is now under construction in connection with a wealthy European firm in Bombay. Fruit of many different kinds is plentiful. The mango and custard-apple grow wild over large tracts. The melons and pine-apples of Haidarábád are as celebrated in their way as the oranges of Nágpur, and the large purple grape of Daulatábád is exported to many distant markets. Plants rich in textile fibre are not less abundant, and will one day, it may be presumed, be utilized on a large scale. '*Tasar* silk, the produce of a wild species of worm, is everywhere gathered in the jungles. Hides, raw and tanned, both of domesticated and wild quadrupeds, are articles of some importance in commerce. Wild bees swarm in all the jungles; consequently wax and honey are very abundant and cheap. Lac, suitable for use as a resin or a dye, may be obtained in quantities far beyond the present demand. Mucilaginous gums are produced in the woods in inex-

haustible quantities, and there are some considered not inferior in quality to the best African gums. Of gum resins, the most worth notice is that yielded by the Boswellia thurifera. Dika-mali, a resin yielded in great quantities by several species of Gardenia, is much used in native pharmacy, and probably might serve important purposes in the arts, but its properties have not been adequately tested. Some sorts of nuts yield oils, which might prove important articles of commerce. Cordage is supplied by the common *san* (Crotalaria juncea), also by some species of Bauhinia, and of admirable quality by Asclepias tenacissima. Of timber, the teak (Tectona grandis) produced in this territory is stunted and indifferent; but some of fine quality is floated down the river from the forests of Nágpur. Other valuable woods are Diospyros melanoxylon and Dalbergia or *sissu*.'

People.—No Census of the population has been attempted in the Nizám's Dominions, with the exception of Berar or the HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS, which are temporarily under British administration. The Statistical Abstract relating to British India for 1876-77 gives the population of Berar at 2,226,496 persons, and the population of the remainder of Haidarábád territory is estimated in the same table at 9,000,000. The above estimates would give an average density of population for Berar of 126 to the square mile, and for the rest of Haidarábád of about 112 to the square mile. In the south-eastern part of the territory, the Telugu language prevails; and in the south-western Districts, in the vicinity of the Kistna (Krishna) river, Kanarese is spoken. In the northern and western parts, Marathí is generally spoken; and, as the border-land between this language and the Dravidian languages passes through the Nizám's Dominions, there is a considerable intermixture of the people speaking the different languages. The Marhattás are most numerous in the west. The Musalmáns are chiefly to be met with in the capital, and everywhere in the civil and military service of Government. In addition to the Hindu and Muhammadan population, there is a large admixture of Parsís, Síkhs, Arabs, Rohillás, aborigines, and 'others.' Owing to the general distribution of arms among all classes, the people of Haidarábád, as of other Native States, present to the casual observer a more formidable appearance than is borne out, perhaps, by anything in their actual character or disposition. The Telingas or Telugu-speaking folk, though not in a highly-advanced state of civilisation, are by no means sunk in barbarism. They generally inhabit straggling villages, in houses built of mud, with pyramidal roofs of palmyra leaves, though a few dwellings are more substantially constructed of brick, and tiled. In some of the less civilised parts, the habitations are mere sheds of palmyra leaves, or hovels made of bamboos and wattle. There is usually to each village a detached fort, constructed either of masonry

or mud, about 50 yards square, and containing the dwellings of the *zamíndár* and his immediate dependants. There is a considerable proportion of Bráhmans among the Telingas; and the usual diet of these and the higher classes consists of rice in some localities and of wheat and *joár* in others, with vegetable curries, and cakes flavoured with garlic or assafœtida and fried in butter. The Bráhmans profess to abstain from animal food; but the *zamíndárs* of the Kumbí caste consume mutton, poultry, and game. The lower orders subsist on *rágí* and other inferior sorts of grain; all are addicted to intoxication with the fermented sap of various kinds of palms and spirit distilled from the flowers of the *mahuá* (Bassia latifolia). Tobacco is generally used, both for smoking and chewing, as well as in the form of snuff. Bhang, or the intoxicating narcotic obtained from hemp, and opium are also in use, but to no great extent. The Gonds, who lurk in the hills and fastnesses, are a wild and savage race; yet they may be rendered tractable and obedient by kind treatment. At present the majority are nearly in a state of nature, sheltering in caves or hollow trees, and feeding on game when obtainable, at other times on vermin, reptiles, and wild roots or fruits.

Commerce, etc.—The principal items of export are cotton, oil-seeds, country cloth, hides, metal ware, and agricultural produce; those of import are salt from the eastern and western coasts, grain, timber, European piece-goods, and hardware. In the absence of any complete system of registration, the only means of approximately estimating the annual value of the trade of the Nizám's Dominions with other Provinces is by calculating it from the known yield of the *ad valorem* duties levied at customs houses. The amount thus deducible would be about £10,000,000 sterling per annum. Among the manufactures of the country may be mentioned the ornamental metal ware of Bedar; the gold-embroidered cloths of Aurangábád, Gulbarga, and other towns; and the excellent paper of different kinds which is made by the inhabitants of the hamlet of Kághazpur, near the famous fortress of Daulatábád.

Communications.—The railway line connecting Bombay with Madras traverses the south-western part of the State. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway runs the line as far as Ráichur, where it is joined by the Madras Railway. At Wadi, 7 miles from the station of Sháhábád, on the Great Indian Peninsula line, the Nizám's State Railway branches off to Haidarábád and to the military cantonment of Secunderábád (Sikandrábád). From Haidarábád two lines of telegraph separate, one going south-west to Bellary, the other with an easterly direction towards Masulipatam, near the mouth of the Krishna. 'The principal roads are the military ones—(1) from north to south, from Nagpur through the city of Haidarábád to Bangalore; (2) from south-east to north-west, from Madras and Masulipatam through the city of Haidarábád to Poona and

thence to Bombay; (3) from south-east to north-west, from the city of Haidarábád to Aurangábád.'

Administration.—The revenue of the Nizám's Dominions, Berar included, may be stated in round numbers at £4,000,000, inclusive of receipts from all sources. About two-thirds of the above large sum is collected by the Nizám's own Government from tracts under native rule. The remaining one-third is realized by British officers principally from Berar. All revenue collected by our Government from Districts owning the sovereignty of the Nizám is either spent by us in administering and opening up those Districts, or is handed over to him as unexpended balance or surplus. The only feudatory of the Nizám is the Rájá of Gudwál, who is independent in his internal administration so long as he pays an annual tribute of Rs. 115,000 (say £11,500).

The land revenue is still collected in kind in some parts of the country; the rate for irrigated crops being half to the Government and half to the cultivator. In the parts where it is paid in money, the rate is much the same, about 8 annas in the rupee on the value of the crop.

The Haidarábád Government has a mint and a currency of its own. In former days, rupees of different kinds were manufactured in various parts of the country. Now there is only one mint, situated inside the city of Haidarábád; and only one kind of rupee, namely, the *hali sicca*, or 'rupee of the period,' is turned out. Though smaller in disc, it is also a good deal thicker than our rupee, and the difference in weight and intrinsic value between the two coins is trifling.

History.—The dynasty of the Nizám was founded by Asaf Jah, a distinguished general of the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb, of Turkoman descent. After a long life at the Delhi Court, distinguished alike in war and political cunning, he was in 1713 appointed Subahdár or Viceroy of the Deccan, with the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk (Regulator of the State), which has since become hereditary in the family. The Mughal Empire was at this time torn by internal dissension, and at the same time threatened by the rising power of the Marhattás. Amid the general confusion, Asaf Jah had little difficulty in asserting his independence against the degenerate descendant of Aurangzeb, though he was less successful in repelling the inroads of Marhattá cavalry. On his death in 1748, he was firmly established as an independent sovereign, with Haidarábád for his capital, and a kingdom roughly co-extensive with the present State. The right of succession was fiercely contested among his descendants. The claimants most favoured were two. One of these, Nasír Jang, the second son of the deceased ruler, being on the spot when his father died, had seized the treasure, and obtained the support of the army; and, moreover, fortified his claim by an alleged renunciation of the right of inheritance on the part of his elder brother. The other, named Muzaffar Jang, was a grandson of Nizám-ul-Mulk by a favourite

daughter; and to him, it was said, the succession was conveyed by testamentary bequest. Each of the two candidates had the good fortune to secure the countenance and support of one of the great European powers then commencing their career of contention for supremacy in the East,—the English espousing the cause of Nasír Jang, the French that of his rival, Muzaffar Jang; but after a very brief period, dissensions between the commander and his officers caused the retirement of the French force from the field, and Muzaffar Jang, deprived of support, became the prisoner of Nasír Jang. Nasír Jang soon after perished by the hands of some of his own followers, and Muzaffar Jang was proclaimed Subahdár of the Deccan; but his authority was exercised under the control of the French commander, Dupleix, whose will was supreme. Muzaffar Jang was not destined long to enjoy even the appearance of power. He fell in an affray with some Pathán chiefs, who, having been instrumental in placing him on the throne, were disappointed in the amount of reward to which they thought their services entitled. A new occupant of the seat of power was now to be sought; and the French, passing over an infant son of Muzaffar Jang, selected Salábat Jang, a brother of Nasír Jang, to be ruler of the Deccan. Another claimant for the dignity, however, shortly afterwards appeared in the person of Ghází-ud-dín, the eldest son of the Nizám Asaf Jah. The impending contest between the brothers was, however, averted by the sudden death of Ghází-ud-dín; and though the Marhattás, by whom he was supported, continued for their own purposes to maintain hostilities, their unvarying ill-success disposed them to listen to proposals for procuring their absence, on the usual terms. The English and French, however, continued to struggle for power and influence in the Deccan; but the latter were compelled after a while, by the danger threatening their own possessions from the victories gained by Clive, to withdraw from the support of Salábat Jang, who thus weakened, and apprehensive, moreover, of the designs of a younger brother, Nizám Alí, entered into an engagement with the English, by which he promised to dismiss the French from his country and service, and renounce all connection with them. In 1761, this weak prince was dethroned by his own brother, Nizám Alí, whom, contrary to the advice of the most judicious of his French counsellors, he had entrusted with power which was used to supplant the donor. Two years afterwards, the usurper made further acknowledgment of his brother's favour by putting him to death. In 1765 he ravaged the Karnatic, exercising in his course a measure of cruelty far beyond what was necessary to his purpose; but he retired on the approach of a British force. Still the British Government was anxious to be on better terms with him, partly from a desire to obtain his concurrence to their retention of a maritime District known as the NORTHERN CIRCARS, for-

merly possessed by the French, but now occupied by the English, who had fortified their right by the *firmán* of the Emperor.

Accordingly, in 1766, a treaty was concluded by which, on condition of a grant of the Circars, the British Government agreed to furnish the Nizám with a subsidiary force when required, and to pay 9 *lákhs* of rupees (say £90,000) a year, when the assistance of their troops was not required. The Nizám on his part engaged to assist the British with his troops. There were other stipulations; and among them one reserving the life right of Basálat Jang, a brother of Nizám Alí's, in one of the Circars, subject to his good behaviour. The aid of British troops was afforded, as provided by the treaty, to enable Nizám Alí to proceed against Haidar Alí of Mysore, then rapidly rising into power; but after a good deal of vacillation, Nizám Alí preferred to unite with that adventurer. The allies, however, were unprosperous, and the Nizám was compelled to sue for peace, which was concluded by a new treaty in 1768. By the Sixth Article, the East India Company and the Nawáb of the Karnatic (who was a party to the treaty) were to be always ready to send two battalions of Sepoys and six pieces of artillery, manned by Europeans, wherever the Nizám should require them, and the situation of affairs would allow of such assistance being rendered, the Nizám paying the expense during the time such force should be employed in this service. In 1782, Basálat Jang died; but the Company did not obtain possession of the Circar held by him till 1788. The *peshkash*, or payment to be made to the Nizám on account of the Circars, had fallen into arrear, and was not adjusted till even a later period. These matters, however, having been at length arranged, the British Governor-General, Lord Cornwallis, in 1789, addressed a letter to the Nizám explaining and interpreting the treaty of 1768, but declining to enter into any new treaty, as had been suggested. This letter was subsequently declared, by a resolution of the House of Commons, to have the full force of a treaty executed in due form. In it the Governor-General agreed that the force stipulated for in the Sixth Article of the treaty of 1768 should be granted whenever applied for, provided it was not to be employed against any power in alliance with the Company. In the following year, on the breaking out of a war with Tipú, son of Haidar Alí, a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between the Nizám, the Peshwá, and the British Government. Tipú purchased peace at the price of half his dominions, and the Nizám had no reason to be dissatisfied with his share of the spoil. At a later period, the Nizám, being engaged in war with the Marhattás, claimed the assistance of the British Government under the subsisting relations between them; but the Governor-General, Sir John Shore, was precluded by the treaties with the Marhattás from interfering further than as mediator, and the Nizám was eventually obliged to conclude an ignominious peace with his enemy. The refusal

of assistance and its results so incensed the Nizám, that he requested that two battalions stationed at his capital as a subsidiary force should be withdrawn. The Nizám now sought safety in the entertainment of a body of troops commanded by French officers, who, however, were dismissed in accordance with the provisions of a treaty concluded in 1798, under the administration of the Earl of Mornington, afterwards Marquis Wellesley. By this treaty, a subsidiary force augmented to 6000 Sepoys with a due proportion of field-pieces, was assigned to the service of the Nizám. On the fall of Seringapatam and the death of Tipú Sultán, the Nizám participated largely in the division of territory, under the partition treaty of 1799, and his share was increased on the Peshwá's withdrawal from the treaty. In 1800, the subsidiary force with the Nizám was further augmented, and the pecuniary payment for its maintenance was commuted for a cession of territory. The country ceded on this occasion consisted of the acquisitions made from Tipú allotted to the Nizám under the treaty of Seringapatam in 1792, and the treaty of Mysore, concluded in 1799, after the destruction of Tipú's power and government. This territory is known to the present time under the title of the Ceded Districts.

By the treaty of 1800, the Nizám agreed to furnish in time of war 6000 infantry and 9000 cavalry to co-operate with the British army, and to employ every effort to bring into the field as speedily as possible the whole force of his dominions. But his troops proved very inefficient in the first Marhattá war, and, after the conclusion of the campaign, various schemes were from time to time proposed for their reform with little success. Eventually battalions were raised, which were clothed, armed, and equipped like the Company's troops; and for the regular payment of this contingent, advances were made in 1843 from the British treasury, on the distinct understanding that in the event of further advances becoming necessary, a territorial security for the payment of the debt would be demanded. No efforts, however, were made to pay off the debt, which continued to increase. At last, in 1853, a new treaty was concluded, by which the British Government agreed to maintain an auxiliary force of not less than 5000 infantry, 2000 cavalry, and 4 field batteries, and to provide for its payment and for certain pensions and the interest on the debt; the Nizám on his part agreed to cede in trust Districts yielding a gross revenue of 50 *lákhs* of rupees (say £500,000). By this treaty the Nizám, while retaining the full use of the subsidiary force and contingent, was released from the unlimited obligation of service in time of war; and the contingent ceased to be part of the Nizám's army, and became an auxiliary force kept up by the British Government for the Nizám's use. In 1857, when the Mutiny had broken out, the condition of Haidarábád and the Nizám's Dominions became critical; and in July, an attack, which was repulsed,

was made upon the Residency. The Haidarábád contingent displayed its loyalty in the field against the rebels. In 1860, a fresh treaty was made by which the territorial acquisitions of the Nizám were increased, a debt of 50 *lákhs* of rupees was cancelled, and the Assigned Districts in Berar, yielding a gross revenue of Rs. 3,200,000 (say £320,000), were taken in trust by the British Government for the purposes specified in the treaty of 1853. Under British administration the revenues of Berar have greatly increased. The surplus is paid over to the Haidarábád State.

The present Nizám, Mír Mahbub Alí, was born in 1866. He is the first Muhammadan ruler in India, and is entitled to a salute of 21 guns. The military force of the Nizám consists of 71 field and 654 other guns, 551 artillerymen, 1400 cavalry, and 12,775 infantry, besides a large body of irregulars.

Haidarábád (*Hyderabad*).—Chief city and capital of Haidarábád State; situated in lat. 17° 21′ 45″ N., and long. 78° 30′ 10″ E., on the river Musí, which is here between 400 and 500 feet wide. It stands at a height of about 1700 feet above sea level, and is distant 389 miles north-west from Madras, 449 south-east from Bombay, and 962 south-west from Calcutta. No Census of the population of the town has been taken, but it has been estimated at 200,000. The scenery around Haidarábád is wild and picturesque, the country being hilly and dotted with numerous granite peaks and isolated rocks. Approached from the west, the appearance of the city is very striking; the palace and mosques and magnificent pile of buildings erected for the British Residency towering above the outer wall.

A large lake, a few miles south of Haidarábád, supplies the town. When full, this sheet of water is nearly 20 miles in circumference, and covers an area of 10,000 acres.

The palace of the Nizám, the mosques, and the British Residency are the principal buildings. The former has, however, no pretensions to splendour, but is of considerable size. M. Langlès describes it as being more than a league in circumference, and guarded by a valiant body of Amazons. Haidarábád is a great Muhammadan stronghold, and contains several mosques. The *Jamá Masjíd* or 'Cathedral' Mosque, so called after the one at Mecca, from which it is designed, is large, and crowned by minarets of an extraordinary height. The pillars within consist each of a single piece of granite, and are very lofty. In the environs of Haidarábád there are many fine gardens, with gorgeous pavilions. That of the Nizám's minister is said to be wonderfully beautiful. It is enclosed by high walls, and in the centre is a marble tank. Carved trellis-work forms an important feature in the building. One of the most interesting places in Haidarábád is the College or *Chár Minár* (so called from its 4 minarets), built upon four grand arches, at which the four principal streets of the city meet. Above are several storeys of rooms, and

formerly each storey was devoted to a science. These apartments are now turned into warehouses.

On the north side of the Musí is an extensive suburb known as the Begam or 'Princess' Bázár, because the imports levied there are a perquisite of the Nizám's principal wife. The British Residency is in this quarter, and communication between it and the palace of the Nizám is maintained by a handsome bridge, planned by Colonel Oliphant, late of the Madras Engineers. It was built in 1831, of squared granite, and has eight arches; the roadway is 24 feet wide. The British Residency was designed by Mr. Russell, and is remarkable, among other things, as having been constructed entirely by native workmen. The north front looks away from the river and the city. It is adorned by a splendid portico, to which leads up a flight of twenty-two steps, having on either side a colossal sphinx. From the summit of the steps six Corinthian columns, faced with *chunám* stone of dazzling whiteness, rise to the top of the upper storey of the main building. The Company's arms, in alto-relievo, form the central ornament. The interior of the portico is elaborately carved, and the whole building stands in ornamental pleasure grounds, enclosed by a wall with two gateways. The staircase is the finest in India, each step being a single block of the finest granite; the walls are richly decorated, and the apartments are furnished with the utmost luxuriance. The pavilions, galleries, and terraces are ornamented in the florid style of Oriental architecture, with a profusion of delicate trellis-work, painting, and gilding. The finest private residence in the city is the palace of the *Bára Dari* or 'Twelve Doors,' now occupied by the present Minister of the Nizám, Sir Sálar Jung.

History.—Haidarábád was founded in 1589, by Kutab Sháh Muhammad Kulí; in 1512, the fifth in descent from Sultán Kulí Kutab Sháh, the founder of the dynasty at Golconda, Muhammad Kulí, removed the seat of government from Golconda on account of its want of water and consequent unhealthiness, and built a new city on the banks of the Musí river, 7 miles from his former capital. He called it *Bhágnagar*, 'Fortunate City,' from his favourite mistress, Bhágmati; but after her death he named it Haidarábád, 'The City of Haidar,' though for many years it retained its former appellation. A fine mosque and the *Chár Minár* were among his public works. The history of Golconda and of Haidarábád after 1589 are almost identical. Soon after establishing himself in his new metropolis, Muhammad Kulí carried on with the neighbouring Hindu Rájás the war which his predecessor, Ibráhim Sháh, had begun. He extended his conquests south of the Kistna river; the strong fortress of Gandikota was captured, and one of his detachments sacked the town of Cuddapah. Some of his troops penetrated even to the frontiers of Bengal, and Muhammad Kulí defeated the Rájá of Orissa, and subjugated the greater part of

the Northern Circars. In 1603, an ambassador from Sháh Abbas, King of Persia, arrived at Haidarábád with a ruby-studded crown and other magnificent gifts. The palace of Díl-kushá was allotted to the envoy, who remained there six years, receiving from Muhammad Kulí £2000 annually for his expenses. When the ambassador left for Persia, an officer of the court of Haidarábád accompanied him, bearing return presents, and amongst them some gold cloth manufactured at Paitan, which it took five years to make. In 1611, Muhammad Kulí died, after a most prosperous reign of thirty-four years. The principal memorials of this monarch are the palace and gardens of Iláhí Mahál, the Muhammadí gardens, the palace of Nabat Ghát, and the *Jamá Masjíd* or 'Cathedral' Mosque. According to the accounts of Mír Abú Tálib, the king's private treasurer, £2,800,000 was expended on public works during the reign of Muhammad Kulí, and £24,000 was distributed every year among the poor. The king's example of liberality was followed by his nobility; and the number of handsome buildings throughout the dominions of the Kutab Sháh monarchs is unsurpassed, if not unequalled, in any other of the Muhammadan kingdoms of the Deccan.

Muhammad Kulí was succeeded by his son, Sultán Abdullá Kutab Sháh. The Mughals under Sháh Jahán, the fifth Emperor (1627-58), now make their appearance in Southern India. Aurangzeb, Sháh Jahán's son, was sent as viceroy into the Deccan by that prince, who seemed bent on compensating for failures beyond the Indus by the subjugation of Bijápur and Golconda. The immediate cause of his attack on the latter kingdom was an appeal from Mír Jumlá, the Prime Minister, whose son had involved him in a dispute with the court. Mír Jumlá, finding himself unable to obtain such concessions as he desired from his own sovereign, determined to throw himself on the protection of the Mughal emperor. Such an opportunity for intrigue suited Aurangzeb's character, and he strongly urged his father to entertain Mír Jumlá's petition. Sháh Jahán, influenced by this advice, issued a mandate to Abdullá to redress the complaints of his minister; but Abdullá was so incensed by this questioning of his independence that he sequestrated Mír Jumlá's property, and committed his son, Muhammad Amín, to prison. Sháh Jahán now despatched Aurangzeb to carry his demands into effect by force of arms. Under pretext of escorting his son Sultán Muhammad to Bengal, to wed the daughter of his brother Prince Shujá, Aurangzeb made a treacherous attack on Haidarábád. The road from Aurangábád (the capital of the Deccan) to Bengal made a circuit by Masulipatam in order to avoid the forests of Gondwána, and thus naturally brought the viceroy within a short distance of Haidarábád. Abdullá Kutab Sháh was preparing an entertainment for Aurangzeb's reception, when he suddenly advanced

as an enemy, and took the king so completely by surprise that he had only time to flee to the hill-fort of Golconda, 7 miles distant, whilst Haidarábád fell into the hands of the Mughals, and was plundered and half burned before the troops could be brought into order. Abdullá did all in his power to negotiate reasonable terms, but the Mughals were inexorable; and after several attempts to raise the siege by force, he was at last forced to accept the severe conditions imposed on him, viz., to give his daughter in marriage to Sultán Muhammad, with a dowry in land and money; to pay a crore of rupees (£1,000,000 sterling) as the first instalment of a yearly tribute; and to make up the arrears of past payments in two years. Mír Jumlá remained in the service of the Mughals, and became a favourite general of Aurangzeb, and one of the most useful instruments of his ambition.

Abdullá died in 1672, and was succeeded by his son-in-law, Abú Husáin, who in his youth had been notorious for dissipated habits. He fell entirely under the influence of a Marhattá Bráhman, named Madhuna Panth, who became his Prime Minister. In 1676, at the invitation of this man, Sivají, the founder of the Marhattá supremacy, entered Haidarábád with a force of 70,000 men, on his way to the Karnatic. He also concluded a treaty with Abú Husáin. Sivají's reception at Golconda afforded grounds for a war with the State of Bijápur, but the invasion was resisted and defeated by Madhuna Panth. Sivají died in 1680, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Sumbají, with whom Abú Husáin also entered into an alliance. Aurangzeb was prevented from at once turning his arms against Golconda, owing to a convention made by his son, Prince Muazím. When, in 1686, Khán Jahán was sent against that State, and found himself unable to oppose its army, he begged urgently for reinforcements; and Prince Muazím was despatched to his assistance. The leader of the Golconda troops proved unfaithful to his cause, and allowed the united forces to proceed unmolested to Haidarábád, where he joined the Mughals with the greater part of his troops. The king, Abú Husáin, shut himself in the fort of Golconda; and Haidarábád was again left open to plunder. Madhuna Panth was killed in a popular tumult, and the king accepted such terms as he could obtain. A payment of 2 millions sterling in money and jewels was demanded. The treaty, however, was of short duration, for in 1687 Aurangzeb formally declared war against Abú Husáin. The king bravely defended the fort of Golconda for seven months, and lost it at last by treachery, and was sent a captive to Daulatábád, where he resided until his death. Abú Husáin was a very popular monarch, and many anecdotes of his virtues are still current in the Deccan. Aurangzeb immediately took possession of all the territories of Bijápur and Golconda, but his occupation was little more than military. The Districts were farmed out, and were governed by

military leaders, who received 25 per cent. for the expense of collecting the revenue.

No event of any importance occurred at Haidarábád until 1707, the year of Aurangzeb's death. A dispute for the crown took place between his two sons, Prince Azím and Prince Muazím. The latter was victorious, and ascended the throne as Bahádur Sháh. Prince Kám Bakhsh refused to acknowledge his brother as king, and Bahádur Sháh, after attempting in vain to win him over by concessions, marched against him to the Deccan, and defeated him in a battle near Haidarábád (February 1708), in which Kám Bakhsh was mortally wounded. Bahádur Sháh then made a truce with the Marhattás; and affairs in the Deccan remained quiet until the end of his reign, in 1712. The viceroyalty was given to Zúlfikár Khán, an adherent of Prince Azím; and the administration of the government to Dáúd Khán, a Pathán officer, who had distinguished himself under Aurangzeb. The death of Bahádur Sháh was followed by struggles amongst his sons. The incapacity of the eldest, Jahándár Sháh, had given a great ascendancy to the second, who was supported by the army and most of the nobility. A battle ensued; Azím-us-Shán was repulsed and slain, and Jahándár Sháh remained undisputed master of the throne. One of his first acts was to put all the princes of the blood within his reach to death. Among those whom he could not get into his power was Farrukh Siyyar, the only son of Azím-us-Shán; but the cause of this prince was espoused by the governor of Behar, Sayyid Husáin Alí. The rivals met near Agra on the 28th of December 1712; and on the 1st of January 1713, Farrukh Siyyar ascended the throne, and conferred dignities upon all his adherents. Among these was Chin-Khilich Khán, a noble of high rank, and a brilliant statesman, to whom was given the title of Nizám-ul-mulk Asaf Jáh. Zúlfikár Khán was put to death, and Sayyid Husáin Alí appointed viceroy of the Deccan in his stead. But the Emperor was jealous of his powerful subject, and wished to get rid of him. He therefore wrote to Dáúd Khán, promising him the viceroyalty if he would attack Husáin Alí on his arrival in the Deccan and destroy him. No more acceptable commission could have been offered to Dáúd Khán than that of revenging the death of his friend and patron Zúlfikár; and taking up a position at Burhánpur, he proclaimed himself viceroy, and awaited Husáin Alí's appearance. A severe battle was fought, in which Dáúd Khán was on the point of victory when he was struck by a bullet, and killed instantly (1716). Husáin Alí immediately took the field against the Marhattás, but was completely routed. He and his brother Sayyid Abdullá Khán, the Wazír of the Deccan, now united their forces against Farrukh Siyyar, whose schemes for the destruction of Husáin Alí had proved abortive. In December 1719, the allies advanced upon Delhi, and the Emperor

submitted to their demands, that became more exorbitant day by day, and ended in their obtaining possession of the royal citadel and palace, which were occupied by their troops. In February 1719, Farrukh Siyyar was deposed, and, two months later, put to death by order of Husáin Alí and Abdullá Khán. The Sayyids now selected Rafí-ud-daulá, who died in a few months. He was succeeded (1719 to 1748) by Muhammad Sháh, who was the last Independent Emperor that sat on the Delhi Throne. The first great event in his reign was the overthrow of Husáin Alí and his brother, which was effected in great measure by a league between Nizám-ul-mulk, and Saádat Khán, his coadjutor and rival, and afterwards the founder of the Oudh dynasty. Chin Khilich Khán saw in the disturbed condition of the country an excuse for raising troops; and as he perceived the difficulty of establishing a permanent control at Delhi, he determined to lay the foundation of his power on a firmer basis, and turned his attention first to the Deccan. His plans against the Sayyids succeeded. In October 1720, Husáin Alí was assassinated, and at the end of the year Abdullá Khán was defeated and taken prisoner by Muhammad Sháh; but the power of this monarch was rapidly declining. In January 1722, Chin Khilich Khán arrived at Delhi, and assumed the office of Wazír. He found the court in a state of the utmost weakness; the Emperor and his favourites were given up to pleasure; and after some months of mutual dissatisfaction, they devised plans to free themselves from the troublesome counsels of Chin Khilich Khán, also called Asaf Jah. The Wazír was despatched against the refractory governor of Guzerat, but speedily returned, strengthened by the addition of a rich Province. In October 1723, shortly after this victory, Asaf Jah resigned his post as Wazír, and set off for the Deccan, a proceeding amounting in reality to a declaration of independence. The Emperor, although he graciously accepted Asaf Jah's resignation, and conferred on him the title of Lieutenant of the Empire,—the highest that could be conferred on such a subject,—did not on that account abate his hostility. He sent orders to the local governor of Haidarábád to endeavour to dispossess the viceroy, and assume the government of the entire Deccan in his place. Mubaríz Khán entered zealously on this task, and succeeded in gathering together a powerful army. Asaf Jah protracted his negotiations for several months, and endeavoured to sow sedition among the adherents of the governor. At last he was forced to come to open war, and soon gained a decisive victory over Mubaríz, who lost his life in the battle, fought in October 1724. As the Emperor had not avowed the attack which he had instigated, Asaf Jah, not to be outdone in dissimulation, sent the head of Mubaríz to court with his own congratulations on the extinction of the rebellion. He then fixed his residence at Haidarábád, and became the founder of an independent kingdom,

now ruled over by his descendants, who derive from him the title of the Nizáms of HAIDARABAD STATE. (In the compilation of this section, considerable use has been made of Elphinstone's *History of India.*)

Haidarábád (*Hyderabad*) **Assigned Districts.** — A Province in Central India, better known under the name of Berar, administered by a British officer, entitled the Commissioner of Berar, under the Resident at Haidarábád. Bounded on the north and east by the British Commissionership of the Central Provinces, on the south by the Nizám's Dominions, and on the west by the Bombay Presidency. Lies between 19° 26′ and 21° 46′ N. lat., and between 75° 58′ 45″ and 79° 11′ 13″ E. long. Population, according to the Parliamentary Blue Book of 1878, based on the Census of 1867, 2,226,496 persons; area, 17,728 square miles; average density, 126 persons per square mile. The following article is mainly compiled from the Reports by the Resident at Haidarábád from 1872 to 1876, which, in their turn, are based, as regards their topographical and historical sections, on Mr. A. C. Lyall's excellent official account of the Province.

Physical Aspects.—Berar is, in the main, a broad valley running east and west, lying between the Sátpura range on the north and the Ajanta range on the south. The old local name of the valley at the base of the Sátpuras was Berar Payanghát; that of the tracts situated among the uplands and hills of the Ajanta range, being Berar Bálághát. The real strength of the Province is found in the valley at the base of the Sátpuras. This valley is watered or drained, as the case may be, by the Púrna (an affluent of the Tápti), and a perfect network of streams descending into the main river both from the hills in the north and from the hills in the south. Its soil is one vast superstratum of black loam overlying trap and basalt. Its rainfall is regular and copious; its area is now entirely cultivated, the whole surface being covered over at harvest time by a sheet of crops. Its population is dense, and consists of Kumbís and other hardy and industrious agricultural tribes. It is traversed from west to east of its whole length by the railway from Nágpur to Bombay. It possesses one of the richest and most extensive cotton fields in India, and several cotton marts of the very first rank. Its other products, especially millet and oil-seeds, are also excellent. Altogether, it is one of the most promising regions to be seen in India; and in respect to natural and material advantages, it surpasses any tract in either the Central Provinces or the Deccan.

The area of Berar may be reckoned at a little more than 17,000 square miles, being about equal to that of the kingdom of Greece without the Ionian Islands. Its population is double that of Greece. Its length from east to west is about 150 miles, and its breadth averages 144 miles. The principal rivers are the Tápti, the Púrna, the Wardha, and

the Penganga or Pranhíta. The Province has but one natural lake, the salt lake of Lonár, a great curiosity. The only forests worth mention are those on the Gawilgarh Hills, where about 400 square miles are conserved by the Government. In South Berar there is an additional forest area of 246 square miles under conservancy. The chief timber tree is the *bábul* (Acacia arabica). Iron ore is plentiful throughout large tracts on the east, especially in the hills about Káranja, and along the low range close to Amráoti on the north-east. It is not worked by the natives, and the proportion of iron in the ore has not been scientifically determined. The only District within Berar which yields coal is that of Wún, where, stretching along the valley of the Wardha river in a direction rudely north and south, a group of beds of thick coal of fair quality has lately been found. This group may be said to extend from near the Wardha river on the north to the Penganga on the south. The beds associated with the coal can be traced throughout, and, although there has not yet been time to prove the existence of coal throughout the entire distance, there can be little reasonable doubt that it will be found to occur.

The climate differs very little from that of the Deccan generally, except that in the Payanghát valley the hot weather is sometimes exceptionally severe. It sets in early, for the freshness of the short cold season disappears with the crops, when the ground has been laid bare by carrying the harvest; but the heat does not much increase until the end of March. From the 1st of May until the rains set in, about the middle of June, the sun is very powerful, though its effect is not intensified by the scorching winds of Upper India. The nights are comparatively cool throughout, probably because the direct rays of the sun have their influence counteracted by the retentiveness of moisture peculiar to the black soil, and by the evaporation which is always going on. During the rains, the air is moist and cool. In the Bálághát country, above the Ajanta Hills, the thermometer stands much lower than in the plains. On the loftiest Gawilgarh Hills, the climate is always temperate; the sanitarium of Chikalda is on this range, a few miles from Ellichpur. The average rainfall for the whole Province is not yet accurately known; it is said to be about 27 inches a year in the valley, and above 30 inches above the Ghàts. On the Gawilgarh Hills it is, of course, much heavier.

Administration.—The Province of Berar is divided into two Divisions, distinguished as East and West Berar. Hence, probably, the origin of the common expression 'the Berars,' which has, however, no warrant either in the history or the geography of the country. Five Districts and one Subdivision of a District, each with an average area of 2833 square miles, are comprised in the above two Divisions. These, again, are subdivided into 21 *tahsílís*, or revenue and judicial Subdivisions,

with an average area of 810 square miles. There are 71 magistrates of all grades, most of them exercising civil and revenue powers.

There are 7662 villages in Berar, at an average distance of 23 miles from the nearest court. One Commissioner has his headquarters at Akola, the other at Amráoti. The principal towns of the Province are —AMRAOTI, population 23,410; KHAMGAON, 9432; ELLICHPUR, 27,782; AKOLA, 15,920; SHEGAON, 7450; AKOT, 14,006; KARANJA, 11,750. There are not more than 31 towns in which the population exceeds 5000. Marathí is the local vernacular of the whole Province.

The land revenue demand in 1872-73 was Rs. 5,904,058 (£590,406), and the gross revenue, Rs. 8,097,824 (£809,782). Subjoined is a table showing the contributions to these totals from the several Districts, with the population of each as ascertained by the Census of 1867, since which date signs of increase, especially in the town population, have been plainly observed:—

AREA, POPULATION, AND REVENUE OF BERAR.

Name of District.	Area in Sq. Miles, 1878.	Land Revenue in 1872-73.	Gross Revenue in 1872-73.	Population in 1867.
		Rs.	Rs.	
Akola, ...	2,654	1,767,013	2,400,032	460,615
Amráoti, . . .	2,767	1,426,600	2,151,747	501,331
Ellichpur, . . .	2,623	909,371	1,260,105	278,576
Buldána, . . .	2,807	930,772	1,075,888	365,779
Wún, ...	3,919	382,363	645,690	323,689
Básim, . . .	2,958	487,939	564,362	276,408
Unaccounted for, . .	...	...	...	20,098
Total, . .	17,728	5,904,058 £590,406	8,097,824 £809,782	2,226,496

History.—In early times, the greater part of the Deccan, as far northward as the Narbadá (Nerbudda), was subject to Rájput princes of the Chalukya race, whose capital was at Kalyán near Gulbarga, from about 1000 A.D. to 1200 A.D. Rám Deo, who was conquered and slain by Alá-ud-dín, was the last of the Yadava line of kings, who reigned not without fame at Deogarh, the modern Daulatábád, down to the end of the 13th century A.D. We may be allowed to guess that Berar was at one period under the sway of Kalyán, or of Deogarh, probably of both successively, though the south-eastern District of the old Province may have belonged to the kingdom ruled by the ancient Hindu Rájás at Warangul. Remains of ancient Hindu architecture attest the received hypothesis that the Province must long have formed part of that principal Rájput kingdom which occupied the heart of the Deccan. But local tradition tells of independent Rájás who governed

Berar from Ellichpur, which is said to take its name from one of them, called Rájá Adíl. The same authority states, what may possibly be corroborated by architectural relics which have yet to be examined by the competent antiquary, that the princes or governors of Berar, immediately before the Muhammadan invasion, were Jains. In A.D. 1294, Alá-ud-dín, nephew and son-in-law to the Delhi Emperor Firoz Ghilzái, made his first expedition into the Deccan. After defeating the Yadava Prince Rám Deo at Deogarh, he is said to have been bought out of the country by a heavy ransom, accompanied by the cession of Ellichpur. Soon after his return to Upper India, Alá-ud-dín murdered his uncle and usurped the Delhi throne. Throughout his reign the Deccan was plundered by successive bands of Muhammadans from the north; but on his death, the Hindus seem to have recovered the Provinces previously subject to Deogarh. However, this insurrection was crushed in 1318-19 by Múbarak Ghilzái, when he flayed alive the last Hindu Prince of Deogarh; and Berar has ever since been nominally under the dominion of Muhammadan rulers. Under them it has always kept its distinct name; and there is reason to believe that from the first it formed a separate Provincial charge, of course with constant change of boundaries. In 1351, on the death of the Emperor Muhammad Tughlak, the southern Provinces fell away from his house, and for 250 years maintained their independence of Delhi. For the next 130 years, Berar remained under the dominion of the Báhmani kings, so called because the founder of their line was either a Bráhman or a Bráhman's servant. This man ruled all the Deccan under the title of Alá-ud-dín Husáin Sháh, and divided his kingdom into four Provinces, of which Mahur, Rámgarh, and part of Berar formed one. On the collapse of this dynasty in 1526, we find Berar one of the five kingdoms into which the Deccan had virtually split up, fairly embarked on a period of independence under the Imad Sháhi Princes, whose capital was Ellichpur. The founder of this dynasty had been, it is said, a Kanarese Hindu captured in war, whom Khán Jahán, Governor of Berar, promoted to high office. He rose to the title of Imad-ul-Mulk, and the command of the Berar forces. But he bequeathed to his successors no share either of his good fortune or ability. An attack by the allied Kings of Bijápur and Ahmednagar gave Berar to the latter in 1572. The Ahmednagar dynasty, however, was not destined long to hold possession of the prize. The cession of Berar to the Emperor Akbar by the Ahmednagar Government took place in 1596. In 1599, the great Emperor himself came down to Burhanpur and organized his recent conquests. Ahmednagar was taken, and all the country recently annexed, including Berar, was placed under Prince Danyál (the Emperor's son) as viceroy, Berar retaining its separate formation as an imperial *subah*, of which the

extent and revenue are pretty accurately known from the *Áín-i-Akbarí.* The death of Akbar in 1605 distracted for a time the attention of the Mughal Government from their new Province in the Deccan; and Málik Ambar, who represented Nizám Sháhí independence at Daulatábád, recovered the greater part of Berar. This man, an Abyssinian by race, is well known as the great revenue administrator of the Upper Deccan. He first made a regular assessment by fixing the Government share in the estimated produce, commuted to money value, says Duff's *Mahrattas;* but the hereditary revenue officers of Berar assert that the assessment was on the quality of land, at so much per *bighá*, said to have been made in 1612. Málik Ambar held his own in these parts until he died in 1628. In 1630, the Mughals recovered Berar, and re-established the imperial authority. Sháh Jahán divided his Deccan dominions into two governments, of which one comprised Berar, Payanghát, Jálna, and Khandesh; but these were soon reunited under one head. The revenue assessment was reorganized, and the *fasli* era introduced from 1637-38. It is very difficult, and would not be very profitable, to pursue the separate thread of Berar Provincial history through the tangled coil of Deccan warfare, from A.D. 1650, when Aurangzeb became Viceroy of the Deccan, until the hour when he died at Ahmednagar, in A.D. 1707. Berar underwent its share of fire and sword, Marhattá plundering and Mughal rack-renting. After Aurangzeb's death, the Marhattás consolidated their predominance, and *chauth* and *sardeshmúkhí* were formally granted by the Sayyid Ministers of the Emperor Farrukhsiyyar in 1717 upon the six and a half *súbahs* of the Deccan. But, in 1720, Chin Khilich Khán, Viceroy of the Deccan, under the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk, won his independence by three victories over the imperial lieutenants, or rather over the armies commanded by the partisans of the Sayyid Ministers who governed in the Emperor's name. Nizám-ul-Mulk had been joined by the Subahdár of Berar. The first battle was near Burhánpur in A.D. 1721; the second at Bálápur soon after; and the last decisive victory was gained, in August A.D. 1724, at Shakar-Khelda, called *Fateh-Khelda* from that day, in the present Buldána District. From this date Berar has always been nominally subject to the Haidarábád dynasty. The material and even moral injury caused to this Province by the wars of the 18th century must have been wide and deep. Described in the *Áín-i-Akbarí* as highly cultivated, and in parts populous, supposed by M. de Thevenot in 1667 to be one of the wealthiest portions of the Empire, it fell on evil days before the close of the 17th century. Cultivation fell off just when the finances were strained by the long wars; the local revenue officers rebelled; the army became mutinous; and the Marhattás easily plundered a weak Province, when they had divided its sinews by cutting off its trade. Wherever the Emperor appointed a *jágírdár* the Marhattás

appointed another, and both claimed the revenue, while foragers from each side exacted forced contributions; so that the harassed cultivator often threw up his land and joined in the general business of plunder. The Marhattás succeeded in fixing their hold on this Province; but its resources were ruined, and its people must have been seriously demoralized by a *régime* of barefaced plunder and fleecing, without pretension to principle or stability. By the partition treaty of Haidarábád (dated 1804), the whole of Berar, including Districts east of Wardha,—but excluding certain tracts left with the Nágpur chiefs and the Peshwá,—was made over in perpetual sovereignty to the Nizám. The forts of Gawilgarh and Narnala remained subject to Nágpur. A fresh treaty was made in 1822, which settled the frontier of Berar, and conferred upon the Nizám all the country west of the Wardha. The tracts lying east of that river were at length formally ceded to Nágpur; but the Districts taken by the Peshwá in 1795, and those which had been left to the Bhonslá in 1803, were all restored to the Haidarábád State. The disbanding of large numbers of troops filled the country with gangs of plunderers; and it was sometimes necessary for us to interfere for the preservation of peace, as in 1849, when Apá Sáhib was captured and his followers dispersed. Meanwhile, the Nizám's finances had sunk into such a desperate state, that in 1843, and in several succeeding years, the pay of the force maintained under the treaty of 1800 had to be advanced from the British Treasury. The total bankruptcy of the Haidarábád State at length necessitated, in 1853, a new treaty, under which the existing Haidarábád contingent force is maintained by the British Government, in lieu of the troops which the Nizám had been previously bound to furnish on demand in time of war; while, for the payment of this contingent, and other claims on the Nizám, Districts yielding a gross revenue of 50 *lákhs* of rupees were assigned to our Government. The territory made over to the British under this treaty comprised, besides the Assigned Districts as they now exist, the Districts of Dharaseo and the Ráichur Doáb. It was agreed that accounts should be annually rendered to the Nizám, and that any surplus revenue should be paid to him. On his part, he was released from the obligation of furnishing a large force in time of war; while the contingent ceased to be part of the Nizám's army, and became an auxiliary force kept by the British Government for his use. The provisions of the treaty of 1853, however, which required the submission of annual accounts of the Assigned Districts to the Nizám, were productive of much inconvenience and embarrassing discussions. Difficulties had also arisen regarding the levy of the 5 per cent. duty on goods under the commercial treaty of 1802. To remove these difficulties, and at the same time to reward the Nizám for his services in 1857, a new treaty was concluded in December 1860, by which a debt of 50 *lákhs*

due by the Nizám was cancelled; the territory of Surapur, which had been confiscated for the rebellion of its Hindu Rájá, was ceded to the Nizám; and the Districts of Dharaseo and the Ráichur Doáb were restored to him. On the other hand, the Nizám ceded certain Districts on the left bank of the Godávari, traffic on which river was to be free from all duties; and agreed that the remaining Assigned Districts in Berar, together with other Districts, yielding a gross revenue of Rs. 3,200,000 (£320,000), should be held in trust by the British Government for the purposes specified in the treaty of 1853; but that no demand for accounts of the receipts and expenditure of the Assigned Districts should be made. Certain territorial exchanges were also effected, with the object of bringing under British administration those lands within the Assigned Districts which were held in *jágír* for payment of troops, or which were allotted for the Nizám's privy purse. The history of Berar since 1853 is marked by no important political events beside the change made under the treaty of 1861. Its smooth course was scarcely ruffled even by the troubles of 1857; whatever fires may have been smouldering beneath the surface, the country remained calm, measuring its behaviour, not by Delhi, but by Haidarábád. In 1858, Tántia Topí got into the Sátpura Hills, and tried to break across southward that he might stir up the Deccan; but he was headed back at all outlets, and never got away into the Berar valley. The Province has rapidly progressed under British rule. When it was made over to us, writes Sir Richard Temple in his official report, 'the neighbouring Districts were full of families who had emigrated thither from Berar, and who, with the usual attachment of the people to their original patrimony, were anxious to return on any suitable opportunity. Thus hundreds of families and thousands of individuals immigrated back into Berar. Many villages in the Nágpur country lost many of their hands in this way, and were sometimes put to serious straits.' The American war, which shortly supervened, stimulated the cotton trade to an enormous extent in Berar; wages rapidly rose with the unprecedented demand for labour which followed; and the opening up of the railway system has tended still further to enhance the prosperity of the Province.

Population.—The first—and, up to the present time (1879), the only—Census ever taken in the Province was carried out in November 1867. It disclosed a total population of 2,231,565 persons, dwelling in 5694 towns and villages and inhabiting 495,760 houses; area, as then estimated, 17,334 square miles. A more accurate survey (Parliamentary Abstract, 1878) gives the area at 17,728 square miles; and the last return from the Government of India (quoted in the same Blue-Book) makes the total population 2,226,496. So many years have elapsed since the Census of 1867, and this enumeration

was altogether of so experimental a character, that it is not considered advisable to give in this place the details then elicited. These will, however, be found in the articles on the Districts constituting the Province—viz. AMRAOTI, AKOLA, ELLICHPUR (including MELGHAT), BULDANA, WUN, and BASIM. The average density of the population in Berar is 126 persons per square mile,—a number higher than in any Division of the neighbouring Central Provinces, though far below the average of the North-Western Provinces.

The largest towns of the Province are ELLICHPUR (pop. 27,782), AMRAOTI (23,410), AKOLA (15,920), and AKOT (14,006).

Agriculture.—The Berar cultivator follows a primitive system of rotation of crops. He manures very little, though as much as he can, since he is obliged to use so much dung for fuel that he has little to spare for his fields. Good cultivable land is never enclosed for hay and pasture, though plenty of grass is cut and stacked from wide uncultivated tracts; and the working bullocks are well fed, partly on this hay, more generally on the *joár* stalks, a little on cotton seed. Large droves of cattle, sheep, and goats graze on commons and barren wolds. From wells the cultivators irrigate patches of wheat, sugar-cane, opium, and market-garden produce. At places they obtain water from small reservoirs and surface streams, especially under the hills and to the southward. But in the Berar valley, which contains the richest land, water is scarce even for the drinking of man and beast; there is a dearth of grass and wood; hired labour is insufficient and dear. Capital in agricultural hands is scanty. The cultivators are slowly (though surely) emerging out of chronic debt. Agriculture is supported by the good-will with which all small money-lenders invest in it, because there are no other handy investments which pay so well as lending on bond to the farmers. Cultivation is obliged to support the peasant and his family, to pay the State revenue, to return the capital invested with not less than 18 per cent. interest to the Márwárí money-lender, and to furnish the court fees on litigation whenever the rustic sees a chance of evading his bond. But the petty cultivator keeps his hold of the land; no one can make so much out of it as he can; and he is much aided by the customs of *metayer* tenancy and joint-stock co-operative cultivation, which enable him to get cattle, labour, and even a little cash on favourable terms. On the whole, the Berar cultivator is lazy and easy-going, starts late to his field and returns early. Neither hope of great profits nor fear of ruin will drive him to do the full day's work which is extracted from the English farm labourer. The area under cultivation in 1872-73 was estimated at 5,691,921 acres. *Joár* and cotton are the staple crops of the Province, occupying respectively 37 and 29 per cent. of the entire cultivated area. The other principal crops are wheat and inferior grains, oil-seeds and

fibres. Sugar-cane, opium, and tobacco are also grown to a small extent. The average rental of cotton land is 1s. 11d. per acre; wheat and oil-seed land, 2s. to 2s. 3d.; tobacco land, 3s. 4d.; land under opium, 6s. 8½d.; and that under sugar-cane, 8s. 8½d. per acre. The yield per acre of the different crops is as follows:—Rice, 209 lbs.; wheat, 214 lbs.; *joár*, 313 lbs.; gram, 163 lbs.; cotton, 148 lbs.; opium, 4 lbs.; oil-seeds, 204 lbs.; and tobacco, 238 lbs. There is a Government farm at Akola, where numerous interesting agricultural experiments have been carried out. Average prices of produce in 1872-73 were returned as follows:—Clean cotton, 43s. 8d. per cwt.; wheat, 5s. 11s. per cwt.; gram, 6s. 1d. per cwt.; rice, 9s. 6d. per cwt.; *joár*, 4s. 8d. per cwt.; oil-seeds, 16s. per cwt.; and tobacco, 41s. per cwt. Wages in the same year varied from 1s. 4½d. to 1s. 10d. a day for skilled labour, and from 3⅞d. to 6⅝d. per diem for unskilled labour.

Manufactures and Trade.—A rich agricultural Province like Berar finds it more profitable to raise raw produce to pay for imported manufactures, than to pursue manufactures of its own. Cotton cloth, chiefly of the coarser kinds, some stout carpets, and a few *charjamahs*, or saddles, are made within the Province. A little silk-weaving goes on, and the dyes are good at certain places. At Dewalghát, near Buldána, steel is forged of fair quality. Nágpur supplies fine cloths; nearly all articles of furniture or luxury come from the west. The following statement shows the value of the imports and exports in 1872-73:—

Trade of Berar in 1872–1873.

	Value of Imports.	Value of Exports.	Total Value.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
East Berar—			
From Central Provinces (northern and eastern border),	8,262,275	11,524,255	19,786,530
From Central Provinces and Nizám's Dominions (south-east & southern border),	4,472,631	2,306,737	6,779,368
West Berar—			
From Khandesh and Bombay (western border),	5,749,060	9,447,633	15,196,693
From Aurangábád and Jálna (south-western border),	1,395,384	1,381,135	2,776,519
Total,	19,879,350 £1,987,935	24,659,760 £2,465,976	44,539,110 £4,453,911

Of the total value of the goods imported into the Province, 25·8 per cent. were conveyed by rail, and 18·8 per cent. by road. Similarly of the exports, 43·2 per cent. are credited to rail, and 12·2 per cent. to road.

The following is the quantity of goods exported and imported:— Imports — 2,084,538 *maunds*, viz. by rail, 1,295,236; and by road, 798,302: exports—1,374,812 *maunds*, viz. by rail, 1,054,411; and by road, 320,401.

Administration.—The gross revenue of the different Districts of the Province in 1872-73 has been given above (p. 519), the total amounting to £809,782, of which £590,406 was derived from land. The total expenditure in the same year was £656,627, of which £303,886 were spent on the military establishments (Haidarábád contingent), and £266,156 on the Civil Department. From the very outset the work of education in the Assigned Districts seems to have been fostered by Government without any local assistance. No independent exertion on the part of the people preceded the introduction of the State system; and great difficulty has been experienced in obtaining the support of the leading individuals, whether in town or village. The classification of Government schools and the average daily attendance in 1872-73 are thus shown:—2 high schools, with 122 pupils; 50 middle-class schools, 3268; 326 lower-class schools, 7233; 25 female schools, 457; and 1 normal school, 29. Bráhmans are represented in the Berar schools by a proportion of nearly 6 per cent., and the Muhammadan element is increasing. Though the percentage of schoolboys to the total population is indicated by so low a figure as ·7, it should be borne in mind that nearly half that population consists of females, and that the Census returns of 1867 show 57 boys under 13 years of age to every 100 men. If a calculation based on these figures can be trusted, we may infer that 2 or 3 out of every 100 boys in the Province are enrolled in Government schools. The police force in 1872-73 consisted of 2632 officers and men, costing £53,852, of which £48,119 was debited to Provincial and £5733 to municipal funds. These figures show one policeman to every 847 of the population. In the same year, 11,104 persons were arrested, of whom 8027 were finally convicted.

Haidarábád (*Hyderabad*).—A British District in the Commissionership of Sind, Bombay, lying between 24° 13′ and 27° 15′ N. lat., and between 67° 51′ and 69° 22′ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Blue-Book of 1878, 9053 square miles; population (1878), 721,947. Bounded on the north by Khairpur State; on the east by the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency; on the south by the same tract and the river Kori; and on the west by the river Indus and Karáchi (Kurrachee) District.

Physical Aspects.—The District is a vast alluvial plain, 216 miles long by 48 broad. Fertile along the course of the Indus, which forms its western boundary, it degenerates towards the east into sandy wastes, sparsely populated, and defying cultivation. The monotony of its great flats is relieved only by the fringe of forest which marks the course of the river, and by the avenues of trees that line the irrigation channels branching eastward from the beneficent stream. The Tanda Deputy Collectorate, in the south of the District, has a special feature in its large natural water-courses, called *dhoras*, and basin-like shallows, or *chhaus*, which retain the rain for a time sufficient to nourish the hardy *bábul* trees on their margins. In the Haidarábád *táluk*, a limestone range, called the Gánja, and the pleasant frequency of garden lands break the tiresome landscape. Except in these two divisions, the District is an unrelieved plain; its western side, however, intersected by canals; its eastern, beyond the limits of artificial irrigation, a sandy waste. The soil, wherever irrigated, is very fertile. The following five varieties—*Dasar*, light and loose; *paki*, firm; *chipka*, a mean between the two; *gisar* and *kaswári*, rich clays—produce all the necessary crops. Other varieties are sandy, and some of them saline, such as the *wariási*, *shor*, *kalrathi*, *kalar*, etc. The chief indigenous forest trees are the *pípal* (Ficus religiosa), *ním* (Azadirachta Indica), *tali* or blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), *sirih* (Albizzia lebbek), *ber* (Zizyphus jujuba), *bahan* (Populus euphratica), *bhar* (Ficus Indica), *kandi* (Prosopis spicigera), *geduri* (Cordia latifolia), *bábul* (Acacia arabica), with several varieties of tamarisks. In a District so grudgingly favoured by Nature, an extensive fauna is not to be looked for. The hyæna, wolf, fox, jackal, the smaller deer, and the hog almost complete the list of wild mammals. Among birds, the bustard alone is remarkable. Venomous reptiles abound. The Indus supplies a great variety of fish, one of which, the *pala*, is said to be peculiar to this river.

History.—The history of Sind, since 1768, centres in this District, for all the events of the last century affected more or less nearly Haidarábád, the modern capital of the Province. Under its old name of Neránkot, this city was, in the 8th century, sufficiently important to be the first object of Muhammad Kásim's invasion of Lower Sind. A hundred years later, Ghulám Sháh, the Kalhora chief, burst out from the desert, overthrew his usurping brothers, and made Neránkot, then renamed Haidarábád, his capital. Thenceforth this District assumes a foremost place in Provincial history. Under the Tálpur dynasty, it remained the leading State; and within its limits were fought the battles of Miáni (Meeanee) and Dabo, which decided in the British favour the fate of Sind. Its local history is, however, so mixed up with that of the Province, that little could be here said of it separately which will not

more properly find a place under the history of SIND. The area and boundaries of the District have not been changed since 1861; but prior to that date, the Umarkot District (now under the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendent) and a large portion of the eastern delta (now part of the Sháhbandar Deputy Collectorate) were included within Haidarábád. The *parganás* of Kandiáro and Naushahro were resumed by Government in 1852, from the domains of Mir Alí Murád of Khairpur, on his public conviction for forgery and fraud, and transferred to this Collectorate.

Population.—According to the general Census of 1872, the population of Haidarábád District is divided as follows:—Muhammadans, 560,349; Hindus, 118,652; other creeds and tribes, 44,882; total, 723,883. Of the Muhammadans, more than three-fifths, or 373,705, are Sindis, chiefly Sunnis of the Halpotro, Junejo, Dul, Powár, Thebo, Sumro, Sand, Katiyár, and other clans,—the descendants of the original Hindu population converted to Islám during the Ummayide dynasty of Khálifas. These Sindis have a fine *physique*, but an inferior moral character, being reputed unclean and cowardly, although quiet and inoffensive; and are looked down upon by the more warlike tribes of the District as natural serfs. Their language is Sindí, of the Sanskrit family of speech, and more closely connected with the Prákrit than either Marathí, Hindí, Panjábí, or Bengálí. It has three dialects, all of which meet in this District as on common ground—namely, the *lari*, or dialect of Southern Sind; the *siraiki* of the north; and the *thareli*, 'the language of the desert.' Next in point of numbers among the Muhammadans are the Baluchis, aggregating in this District 128,785 persons, and subdivided into a great number of tribes, the chief being the Rind, Bhugti, Chang, Tálpur, Jatoi, Lagbári, Chandio, Kaloi, Khoso, Jakráni, Lashári. They are descended from the mountain tribes of Baluchistán, through whom they trace their origin to Aleppo in Syria. Their leading clan is the Rind, and its members are held by the rest of the community in high respect. Fairer in complexion than the Sindis, they are also a hardier race; honourable after their own code, and manly in field-sports. They are Sunnis by religion. More important, however, as regards social status and personal character are the Patháns, found chiefly about Haidarábád and Upper Sind, with the naturalized Sayyids, divided into four families, the Bokhári, Matári, Shirázi, and Lekhiráji. Together they number 15,815 persons. They are superior to the foregoing in personal appearance and morale. From their being held in great esteem by the princes of the Kalhora dynasty, they acquired considerable grants of land, which they still hold. The remaining Muhammadan classes worthy of special mention are the following:—(1) Memons, formerly Kachhí-Hindus, who emigrated to Sind under the Kalhora rule, and

devoted themselves to agriculture and cattle-breeding. They now supply a learned class, who have done more than any other to introduce the sacred sciences into Sind, and are accordingly held in high respect. (2) The Khwájas, fugitives from Persia when their creed (the Ismáilyeh heresy) was persecuted by Haláku Khán. They have isolated themselves from all the other Muhammadans of the District, not only by maintaining their own special tribunal in religious differences, and separate officers (Mukhi, etc.), but by the singularity of their dress, in which they avoid dark blue, the colour of the country. The Memons and Khwájas aggregate 13,000. (3) Sidhis, natives of Maskat (Muscat), Zanzibar, and Abyssinia, who until the British Conquest were bought and sold as slaves. (4) The Shikáris or Daphers of Tanda number 1353. Though Muhammadans they eat carrion, and are excluded from the mosques.—Among Hindus, the most numerous caste is the Vaisya or Baniya, aggregating about 85,000, and of these nearly four-fifths belong to the Loháno tribe. The subordinate ranks of Government service are almost exclusively recruited from the Lohános, and the vast majority of Hindu shopkeepers and traders also belong to this caste. In their complex subdivisions, they are mixed up with the Muhammadans. Although wearing the thread, they become the disciples of Musalmán teachers, assume their dress, eat meat, drink spirits, and disregard all the customs of orthodox Hindus with regard to receiving food from inferiors, etc. Their marriage ceremonies are so expensive that many remain single till late in life. The Súdras, a servile caste, follow next in numerical importance, aggregating in this District about 18,000. The most numerous guilds are—the *sonárs* or goldsmiths, who, owing to the popular taste for ornaments, are, as a rule, well-to-do; *sochis* or shoemakers, who will not, however, skin carcases or tan leather, but buy it from the Muhammadan *muchi*; *khátis* or dyers; and *hajáms* or barbers. They have all adopted the thread, intermarry only in their own castes, and have no priests but Bráhmans. Nevertheless they are held in Sind in no higher estimation than elsewhere. Bráhmans of pure descent are not numerous in this District, their aggregate in the four Deputy Collectorates being under 4000; but their acknowledged superiority to the castes around them invests their small community with interest. They are divided into two chief septs, which do not intermarry—the Pokárno and Sársudh. The former are the more orthodox Hindus, refusing flesh, wearing the turban and never the Sind cap, reading Sanskrit, abstemious in habit, and employing themselves only in instructing the Hindus in their religious duties, or deciding for them questions of horoscope and ceremonial. The Sársudh, though not abstaining altogether from meat, conform sufficiently to the traditional usages of high-caste Hinduism to be held in great respect, not only by inferior castes of Hindus, but also by the Síkhs. The Síkhs

so called are in reality a nondescript class, recruited from both Hindus and Muhammadans, containing, however, a percentage of veritable followers of Nának. They are divided into two well-defined sects, the Loháno Síkh and the Akali or Khálsa, which differ in certain details of food and shaving the hair. Their devotions are conducted in the Punjábí language, and their holy books, the *Adi Granth*, etc., are in the guardianship of appointed *udhasis*, in special *dharmsálás*. Altogether they aggregate about 23,000 in Haidarábád District, nine-tenths of the whole inhabiting the Naushahro Deputy Collectorate. The religious mendicant classes of the District are those of India generally—the yellow-clothed Sanyásis, Jogís, and Gosáins, who subsist by begging and by the sale of amulets and written charms. All the Hindus, except the mendicants, who are either buried or thrown into the river, according to their testamentary wish, burn their dead with complex funeral rites. In attire, dwellings, and food, the people of Haidarábád do not differ from the general population of the Province. Both Muhammadans and Hindus are addicted to *ganja*, an intoxicating preparation of hemp; and the lowest classes of the latter consume country spirits largely. Opium is much used, and its use is said to be on the increase. As regards occupation, the Hindus of the District may be called the shopkeeping class; the Muhammadans, the artisan and agricultural. The Hindu is astute in business, supple with his superiors, industrious, timid; the Muhammadan is idle, improvident, and often licentious, but more independent and outspoken, and of a finer *physique*.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District, about one-half is uncultivable; 2,300,000 acres are cultivable though not cultivated, and 566,800 are under cultivation. Agriculture in Haidarábád is entirely dependent upon artificial irrigation. There are in the four Deputy Collectorates composing the District 317 canals, 300 of which are Government property. Fifty of these are main channels, which tap the Indus direct; the remainder are connecting branches. The revenue derived from this source is very steady, never having risen above £104,514 nor fallen below £93,423 between the years 1864 and 1874. The cost of clearance has, however, been equally regular, and during the same decade has reduced the net annual income by an average of £22,000. The irrigation carried on by means of these canals can be divided into three classes — (1) where the water has all the year round to be raised by machinery; (2) where at high flood the water will without artificial aid fill the canal; (3) where machinery is never required, the land lying so low as to be subject to inundation at every rise in the river. All three tend to make cultivation imperfect. In the first case, the cost of raising the water, estimated at 8s. the acre—twice as much as the land assessment—prevents any large recourse to it. In the second, the cultivator is tempted to trust to luck,

and thereby save expenditure on lifting apparatus. In the third, the fields lie at the mercy of the most treacherous of rivers. Agriculture, it has been said of this District, is looked upon as a lottery, in which the cultivator stakes a certain amount of labour and seed on the chance of getting an exactly suitable flood. If the water rises too high, or not high enough, he loses his crop. The result is bad cultivation, for the majority of the cultivators risk only the careless preparation of a small patch, which, if a prize turns up, will suffice for their wants; and if a blank, will not seriously embarrass them. Irrigation is carried on entirely by the wheel for the *kharíf* crops, and by wheel or *mok* flooding for the *rabí*. Three varieties of the Persian wheel are in use—the *charkha*, requiring for efficiency more than one pair of bullocks; the *húrla*, for which one pair suffices; and the *piráti* (not common), which is worked by men. The relative powers of the three are as 20, 11, 4. Cultivation from wells is confined entirely to garden lands, the water lying everywhere at so great a depth that well-sinking is only remunerative where, as in the Haidarábád *táluk*, the neighbourhood of the railway admits of high profits on exceptional crops. The canals begin to fill about May, in proportion to the annual rise of the Indus, and are again dry by October. None are perennial in the Tando Deputy Collectorate, and in Hála only one — the Mahmúda. There are three principal crops—namely, the spring (*rabí*), sown in June and reaped in October; the autumn (*kharíf*), sown in October and reaped in March; and the *peshrás*, sown in March and reaped in May and June. The last is not grown in the Tando Deputy Collectorate. A fourth crop, called *adáwas*, finds a nominal place in Naushahro between April and August. The crops of the *rabí*, grown on land previously saturated by canal flooding or rain (*sailábi* and *baráni*), without any further irrigation during growth, are wheat, barley, castor and other oil-seeds, pulses, and vegetables. Those of the *kharíf*, which are sown immediately after the annual rise of the Indus commences, are *joár*, *bájra*, *tíl*, rice, cotton, sugar-cane, *chana*, hemp, tobacco, water-melons, indigo. Those of the *peshrás* are sugar-cane, *joár*, *bájra*, some pulses, and cotton. The average yield per acre of the above may, approximately, be taken to be as follows:—Rice, 11½ cwts.; *joár*, 9; *bájra*, 7½; cotton (uncleaned), 2; *tíl*, 4; tobacco, 5¼; hemp, 5; sugar-cane, 23; wheat, 4; barley, 4; pulse, 5. The cultivators of the District do not follow any method of rotation in their crops. Their implements are of the usual primitive kind, and correspond in general character to the European plough, harrow, spade, hoe, drill, and sickle.

The land tenures of the District are simple. Broadly divided, all land is either 'assessed' or 'alienated.' In the former case, the land is cultivated either by the *zamíndár* himself, or by occupancy holders and tenants-at-will. The occupancy holder (*maurasi hári*) is really

an hereditary cultivator, for his rights are heritable and transferable; and the *zamíndár*, except as regards the actual payment of rent, has no power over him. The tenant-at-will (*ghair maurasi*) is legally the creature of the *zamíndár;* but the large landholders in the District do not exercise their powers oppressively. The *zamíndár's* own tenure is hardly more definite here than elsewhere in India, and whatever of certainty it possesses is owing entirely to British legislation. The last native dynasty of Sind recognised no *zamíndárí* rights whatever; but recent orders of Government have extended to the larger landholders leases on very favourable terms, and they enjoy, therefore, a tenure carrying with it nearly all the rights of veritable proprietorship. In the second class of lands (the alienated) there are four chief varieties, each having subdivisions, viz. *jágírs*, *pattidárís*, *khairats* (charitable grants), garden and forest grants. The *jágírs* of the District were at the first settlement computed at 40 per cent. of the total acreage, but now only about one-sixth of the whole is alienated, as follows:—These *jágírs* are officially classified according as they are permanent and heritable, for two lives only, or merely life grants. All alike are subject to a cess of 5 per cent. for local purposes, and pay besides to Government a percentage of the produce assessed according to their class, the maximum being one-fourth. *Pattidárí* grants, which are of Afghán origin, exist only in the Naushahro division. They obtained recognition at the settlement from the long possession of the then incumbents, dating, in the majority of cases, from the first reclamation from waste or purchase from the earliest proprietors. The total area held on charitable grants is not great. Garden grants are held free of assessment or at a nominal rate, so long as the gardens are properly maintained; and, in the same way, *húrís* or tree-plantation (not orchard) grants are held rent free so long as the land is exclusively reserved for forest growth. *Seridárí* grants are those made in consideration of official services.

For the purposes of assessment, villages are classified into six varieties, the maximum rates in each ranging as follows:—On land perennially irrigated, from 1s. 6d. to 9s.; on *sailábi* lands, from 1s. to 7s.; on *mok* lands, from 1s. 6d. to 5s. 6d.; on land irrigated by wheel for part of the year only, from 1s. to 4s. The average rate per acre on cultivable land is about 1s. 5d. Formerly the Government assessment was levied in kind (*khasgi*), but on a petition from the *zamíndárs*, the payment has since been received in cash. The *zamíndárs*, however, are paid by the tenants in kind at the following rates:—On land under *charkhi* cultivation, one-third of the produce; on *mok* and *sailábi* lands, two-thirds. In the case of the best lands, yielding cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, etc., the *zamíndár* receives his rent, as a rule, in cash.

Manufactures and Trade.—The manufactures of the District maintain the excellence for which they have been famous from early times. The

Haidarábád *táluk* in particular still enjoys much of its old pre-eminence for lacquered work, enamelling (the secret, it is said, of one family only), and gold and silver embroidery. In the fighting days of the Mírs, the arms of Haidarábád were also held in the highest esteem; but owing to the reduced demand for chain armour, shields, and sabres under British rule, the trade is now in abeyance. In the Hála Deputy Collectorate, special features of the local industry are striped and brilliant cloths known as *súsis* and *khesis*, and also glazed pottery. This effective work is turned to various ornamental purposes, especially tiling, and is remarkable for excellence of both glaze and colour. In the Tando Deputy Collectorate, the manufacture of carpets, silk thread, and gold and silver ornaments of good workmanship is carried on to a great extent. The Naushahro Deputy Collectorate has no special manufactures, except salt. This is produced in sufficiently large quantities to allow, after local consumption, of a considerable exportation. In nearly all the villages of the District, some manufacture is carried on; blankets, coarse cotton cloths, camel saddles, and metal work being perhaps the most prevalent.

The total number of fairs is 33, and the average attendance at each about 5000; they last from three to eighteen days.

The transit trade of the District is very considerable. The returns for Hála and Tando show totals in the money value of the goods in transit of £190,000 and £90,000 respectively; but returns for the other two Deputy Collectorates of the District—namely, Haidarábád and Naushahro—are not available. The municipality of Haidarábád derives an annual income of £6000 from tolls on transit trade.

Salt of excellent quality, and in considerable quantity, is found in Tando; but owing to cost of transport, and the opposition of the Bombay salt merchants, it cannot be got into the market. Tando exports salt to the value of only £1000, and receives from transit dues on that article £150.

Means of Communication, etc.—The roads of the District aggregate 1925 miles in length, of which 263 are trunk roads, metalled, bridged, and marked with milestones. The Sind Railway does not actually enter the District, but touches at Kotri, on the opposite bank of the Indus to Gidu-Bandar (3½ miles from Haidarábád), where a steam ferry connects Haidarábád with Kotri. The telegraph passes through the District in several places, twice through Hála and once through the Haidarábád and Naushahro Deputy Collectorates. The only station in the District is at Haidarábád, whence also two lines branch off—one going northwards to Rohri, and the other eastward, *viâ* Mírpur Khás, to Umarkot. Postal communication is represented by 1 disbursing station (at Haidarábád), 12 non-disbursing stations, and 6 branch offices. The ferries number in all 68, one (at Mitháni) being also a station

of the Indus flotilla, and another (at Gidu) a steam-ferry. A small income is derived from this source, the returns for Tando showing £62 per annum. There are in the District, 10 travellers' bungalows and 16 *dharmsálás*. Dispensaries are 4 in number, with an annual admission of 9000 patients, and an average daily attendance of 139. Besides these institutions, there is at Haidarábád a civil and police hospital, a convict hospital (in the jail), and a charitable dispensary, with, in 1874, 18,592 admissions and an average daily attendance of 145.

Administration.—The chief revenue and magisterial authority of Haidarábád District is vested in a Collector and Magistrate, who is assisted by 4 Deputy Collectors, for Hála, Tando Muhammad Khán, Naushahro, and Haidarábád *táluks* respectively, besides a Huzúr Deputy Collector permanently settled at the city of Haidarábád, and a Cantonment Magistrate. The District and Sessions Judge holds sessions at the towns of Haidarábád, Sakrand, Hála, and Tando Muhammad Khán several times in the year, and at Umarkot in the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency once a year. In each Deputy Collectorate there is a subordinate judge with powers up to cases of £500, who goes on circuit within his jurisdiction. The subordinate revenue staff consists of 13 *mukhtiárkárs*, each of whom collects the revenue and exercises limited magisterial powers within the limits of a *táluk;* and *tapádárs*, responsible for the correct measurement of lands, enumeration of irrigation-wheels, etc., each within his *tapá*. The crimes most prevalent throughout the District are cattle-stealing, thefts, burglaries. The total of all offences during 1874 was 5749, of which about 1500 fall under those three heads. The civil courts in the same year had before them 4711 cases, aggregating a value of £42,810, distributed as follows:—Hála, 1296 cases, value £14,578; Tando Muhammad Khán, 642 cases, value £9164; Naushahro, 1391 cases, value £7825; Haidarábád, 1382 cases, value (*táluk*) £3333, (city) £7909. It is noteworthy, that in the Tando courts the Hindus filed against Muhammadans twice as many suits as against Hindus, and that the Muhammadans filled ten times as many against Hindus as against their co-religionists.

The canal divisions are supervised by executive engineers of the Public Works Department, with assistants and suitable establishments. The northern half of the Collectorate is included in the Rohri Canal division, the canals in the southern making up the Fuleli division, while those in the Nára valley of this District are included in the Eastern Nára division.

The police force of Haidarábád District is under the charge of a European District Superintendent, with headquarters at Haidarábád, and consists of the following:—District police (including 116 horse and 37 camel police), 336; town police, 167; armed foot police, 279;

municipal police, 94; total, 876 men with 4 inspectors and 19 chief constables. There is therefore 1 policeman to every 11 square miles and to every 824 of the population.

The revenue of the District is derived chiefly from the land. The following is a statement of the average net land revenue for three successive periods of six years each—1856-62, £107,506; 1862-68, £106,670; 1868-74, £111,655. The receipts from the farm of liquor-shops has shown a steady advance from £3126 in 1856-57 to £9640 in 1873-74, the number of stills during that time having, nevertheless, declined from 20 to 8, and farmers' shops from 158 to 146. Since 1863, in which year the Government distilleries at Haidarábád and Kandiáro were abandoned, all farms for the sale of liquor are sold by public auction to the highest bidder. During the same period (1856 to 1874), the number of European liquor-shops has risen from 1 to 6, and the receipts from £1, 10s. to £60. The drug revenue, which in 1856 realized £1618, had risen by 1873-74 to £5304, the number of shops meanwhile decreasing from 213 to 180. Neither the imperial nor the local revenue of the District shows much variation during the past ten years, the former being in 1864, £137,112, and in 1874, £144,944; the latter in 1866, £10,326, and in 1874, £12,434. The local fund revenue is made up from three taxes, levied under Act viii. of 1865—viz. the 1 anna cess (about 6 per cent.), the 3 per cent. *jágír* cess for roads, and the 2 per cent. *jágír* cess for schools. The forests in this District—32 in number—occupy an area of 183 square miles, and yield an annual revenue of £12,216. The only jail in the District is at Haidarábád; average daily population, 500; cost of prisoners, about £5 each per annum; rate of mortality, 7·6 per cent. Lock-ups are attached to the headquarters station of each *mukhtiárkár*. The total number of Government schools for boys has risen from 21 in 1868 to 55 in 1874, and the number of pupils from 1355 to 3227; the number of girls' schools during the same period has increased from 10 to 12, and the roll from 262 to 368. These figures include the returns for the high, normal, engineering, and Anglo-vernacular schools in Haidarábád city, where also the Church Missionary Society supports a school with about 100 pupils. Little seems to be known of the private indigenous schools, except that they are of a very inferior kind. The fisheries of the District yielded in 1873-74 a revenue of £119 in Hála, £973 in Haidarábád, and £545 in Tando. They are carried on, not only in the Indus, but also in the Fuleli river and some of the *dhandhs* and *kolábs* or natural reservoirs in which the flood waters are retained. The *pala* fish is the staple of these fisheries, and for a part of the year forms the principal food of great numbers of the people. The municipalities of the District are 22 in number, deriving their revenue from fees on imports, licence fees, market tolls, cattle pound fees, etc., and expending their income upon

local conservancy, lighting, police, public works, and grants-in-aid to local education. The statistics of these institutions in each of the four Subdivisions of the District are as follows:—Hála, 9 municipalities, with incomes ranging from £57 to £682; Haidarábád, 3, viz. that of the city with an income of £10,913, and two others with an aggregate income of £64; Tando, 5, average revenue £189; Naushahro, 5, average receipts £190.

Climate.—Considerable variations of climate obtain within the District. In the north, the hot season of April and May is followed by two months of flood, the rest of the year being cold and dry. In the central tract, including Hála and the Haidarábád *táluk*, the cold season succeeds the hot without any intervening inundations to graduate the transition; and the change occurs sometimes with such suddenness that, to quote a local saying, 'sunstroke and frost-bite are possible in one and the same day.' In the south, the temperature is more equable throughout the year, 60° F. and 100° F. representing the extremes. Following these climatic variations, the medical aspects of the District vary, the fevers so frequent in the northern division being almost unknown in the southern portion, where there are no floods to leave marsh land behind them. The rainfall averages only 5¼ inches per annum, the local distribution being—Hála 5½ inches, Haidarábád 6¾, Tando Muhammad Khán 4, Naushahro 5¼ inches annually. In 1869, there was an extraordinary fall of 20 inches all over the District. The same year is memorable for an outbreak of epidemic cholera, and in Haidarábád *táluk* of severe fever. In normal years, the District is healthy as compared with other parts of India. Fevers, however, are very prevalent in September and October, when the inundations cease and the canals are drying up, and they last till the northerly winds set in.

Haidarábád (*Hyderabad*).—One of the four Subdivisions of Haidarábád District, Sind, lying between 25° 10′ and 25° 31′ N. lat., and between 68° 19′ and 68° 41′ E. long.; bounded on the north and east by the Hála Deputy Collectorate; on the west by the river Indus; and on the south by Tando. Area, 416 square miles, or 266,240 acres, of which 34,988 are cultivated, 43,068 cultivable, and 188,184 uncultivable. Population, according to Census of 1872, 98,217, or 236 to the square mile. The *táluk* is divided into the 7 *tapás* of Hátri, Gúndar, Husri, Khathar, Bhindo, Káthri, and Fazal-jo-Tando; and contains 59 villages and 6 chief towns, viz. Haidarábád, Jám-jo-Tando, Káisar-jo-Tando, Khatián, Gidu-Bandar, and Husri. The general aspect of the *táluk* is more diversified than that of the rest of the District, for the Gánga range runs through 13 miles of its length, and besides the extensive forests there is a large proportion of garden land. It is well provided with canals, there being 43 (all Government property), with an aggregate length of 177 miles, and yielding an average annual

revenue of £7330. There are no floods or *lets* in this *táluk* except in the villages of Seri and Jám Shoro, and only one *dhandh* or natural reservoir—fed by the Núrwah channel. The seasons, according to the native division, are four—the *kharif, rabí, peshrás, and ádáwas*—viz. February to March, April to July, August to October, November to January; but in average years the transition from the hot weather to the cold is so sudden that intermediate seasons can hardly be recognised. The mean yearly temperature is 80° F., varying from an average of 64° in January to 92° in June; average annual rainfall, 6·76 inches. The prevailing winds are northerly from November to March, and for the rest of the year from the south, the hot wind from the desert being felt in May. The arable soils of the *táluk* do not differ from those of the rest of the District; and the only mineral peculiarity is the *met*, a kind of fuller's earth dug from mines in the Gánja Hills, which is largely used by the natives as soap. The farm of these mines realizes a revenue of £450 per annum. The fauna and flora are not specially remarkable. The chief timber-tree is the *bábul*, extensively grown in the forests of Miáni (Meeanee), Káthri, Ghaliúm, Khathar, and Husri, which aggregate an area of 12,070 acres, yielding to Government an annual revenue of £1837. They were all planted by the Mírs of Sind at different dates between 1790 and 1832. The three fisheries of the *táluk* (the Bádá, Sipki, and Karo Kháho) yield an annual revenue of £973.

The population of the Deputy Collectorate, 98,217, was divided in the Census of 1872 as follows:—Muhammadans, 65,627, including 9939 Baluchís, 46,361 Sindís, 2322 Sayyids, 1402 Memons and Khwájas, 927 Mughals, 449 Patháns, and 136 Brahúis; Hindus, 27,304, including 20,861 Vaisyas, 4540 Súdras, 1198 Bráhmans, 720 Kshattriyas, and 163 miscellaneous (Kachhis, Bhíls, etc.); Síkhs, 4454. These figures are inclusive of the native military establishment, but exclusive of the Europeans, Eurasians, Pársís, Goanese, etc., official and otherwise, living in the cantonments.

The revenue and magisterial charge of the *táluk* is vested in a Deputy Collector, with 1 *mukhtiárkár* and 7 *tapádárs*. In the city of Haidarábád, there is also the Huzúr Deputy Collector, the Cantonment Magistrate, and the subordinate judge of the Civil Court. The police of the *táluk* and city aggregate 405 men, of whom 333 are in the city, and the remainder, 72, distributed over the *táluk* in 15 *thánás* or outposts.

The revenue of the *táluk* for 1873-74 was £22,179, being £20,162 imperial and £2017 local, derived from the following sources:—*Imperial*—land tax, £8038; *abkári* or excise, £7377; stamps, £3757; salt, £358; registration, £240; telegraph, £281; fines and fees, £84; postal and miscellaneous, £27: *Local*—cesses on land and *sayer* or

customs, £490; percentage on alienated lands, £26; cattle pound and ferry funds, £510; fisheries, £906; tolls, £85.

The topographical survey of the *táluk* for the purposes of settlement was completed in 1858. The prevailing tenure is the usual *zamíndári* of the District. There are in the *táluk* 50 *jágírdárs*, holding between them 63,902 acres, or one-fourth of the whole area, 62,506 being arable, and paying an annual revenue of £440. A single *jágírdár*, Mír Muhammad Khán Khanáni, holds above 28,353 acres. The number of *seri* grants is 47; total acreage, 1140; and there are besides 42 *máfidárs* holding small patches rent free.

Three towns — HAIDARABAD, ADAM-JO-TANDO, and KAISAR-JO-TANDO—have been constituted municipalities, the annual income being £10,978.

The only medical establishments, jails, post office, and telegraph station in the District are in HAIDARABAD CITY, as also are the chief educational institutions.

Haidarábád (*Hyderabad*).—Municipal town and chief town of Haidarábád District, Sind. Lat. 25° 23′ 5″ N., long. 68° 24′ 51″ E.; pop. (1872), 35,272, of whom 13,065 are Muhammadans, 16,889 Hindus, 367 Christians, and 4951 'others.' The suburban population is reckoned at 5880. The municipal area is about 15 square miles. The municipal revenue (1873-74) was £10,913, and the disbursements, £8495; rate of municipal taxation, 6s. 2d. per head. Upon the site of the present fort is supposed to have stood the ancient town of Neránkot, which in the 8th century submitted to Muhammad Kásim Sakífí. In 1768, the present city was founded by Ghulám Sháh Kalhora; and it remained the chief town of the Province until 1843, when, after the battle of Miáni (Meeanee), it surrendered to the British and the capital was transferred to Karáchi (Kurrachee). The city is built on the most northerly hills of the Gánja range, a site of great natural strength, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles east of the Indus, with which it is connected by the high road to Gidu-Bandar, where a steam-ferry crosses the river to Kotri on the Sind Railway. In the fort, which covers an area of 36 acres, are the arsenal of the Province, transferred hither from Karáchi (Kurrachee) in 1861, and the palaces of the ex-Mírs of Sind. Haidarábád is at present supplied with water from the plains below the town; but a system of works is now (1877) under construction, which provides for bringing water from the Indus at Gidu-Bandar, and storing it in a reservoir for the city and a well in the fort. Haidarábád is the centre of all the Provincial communications—road, telegraphic, postal. From the earliest times, its manufactures—ornamented silks, silver and gold work, and lacquered ware—have been the chief of the Province, and in recent times have gained prizes at the Industrial Exhibitions of Europe. A local specialty is the manufacture

of the earthen vessels, *mati*, which are used by the *pala* fishermen to buoy themselves up on the water while fishing. Statistics of the local trade are not available; but, as the municipality derives an annual income of £6000 from tolls on various articles, it must be very considerable. The chief public institutions and buildings are the jail (capable of holding 600 convicts), the Government Anglo-vernacular, engineering, high, and normal schools, post office, municipal markets, court-houses, civil and police hospital, charitable dispensary, library, travellers' bungalow, and lunatic asylum. To the building of the last, Sir Cowasjee Jahángir Readymoney subscribed £5000. The barracks—occupied by artillery and infantry, European and native, 1216 strong—are built in 12 blocks, with hospitals, *bázár*, etc., to the north-west of the city. The only noteworthy antiquities are the tombs of the Kalhora and Tálpur Mírs. The Residency, memorable for its gallant defence by Sir James Outram against the Baluchís in 1843, situated 3 miles from Haidarábád, is known as Mír-jo-Tando, being the residence of some of the ex-Mírs of Sind. For further history, see SIND PROVINCE.

Haidarábád.—*Parganá* of Nighásan *tahsil*, Kheri District, Oudh. A part of the old *parganá* Bhúrwára belonging to the Ahbans and Pásis; afterwards seized by the Sayyids, and then occupied by the Gaurs, with whom a *zamíndárí* settlement was effected about 1792 A.D. Since then various branches of the old Ahban family have recovered possession, and they now own the principal estates. The rest of the *zamíndárs* are retainers or followers of the Sayyids and the *chakládárs*. Along the banks of the Kathná, which forms the western boundary, the land lies very low, and is covered with jungle. The ground slowly rises, and the cultivated tract commences about 2 miles from the river. The soil here is a light *domát*, but it rapidly improves, and about half a mile from the border of cultivation is of the very highest quality, producing every variety of crop, and paying high rents. The belt of villages lying across the centre of the *parganá*, most of which are the property of Government, produce sugar of the greatest purity, which requires hardly any refining to make the clearest candy, and realizes a considerably higher price than any other in the Sháhjahánpur market. Fine groves also dot the *parganá*. Area, 98 square miles, of which 41 are cultivated. Pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent changes), Hindus, 30,997; Musalmáns, 4711; total, 35,708, viz. 19,297 males and 16,411 females. Number of villages, 108; average density of population, 317 per square mile. In the south of the *parganá*, near the Kathná, are the ruins of the jungle fort of Mahmúdábád; a similar fort is found at Ahmadnagar. Both attest the former greatness of the Sayyids of Piháni, by whom they were erected.

Haidarábád.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 19 miles north of

Unao town. Lat. 26° 55′ N., long. 80° 17′ E. Founded about 180 years ago by Haidar Khán, who named it after himself. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 3043; Muhammadans, 766; total, 3809, dwelling in 788 mud houses. Two weekly markets; small annual trading fair. Average sales, about £2400.

Haidargarh.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Bára Bánki and Rám Sanehi *tahsíls*, on the east by Musáfirkhána *tahsíl* of Sultánpur, on the south by Mahárájganj *tahsíl* of Rái Bareli, and on the west by Mohanlálganj *tahsíl* of Lucknow; lying between 26° 31′ 30″ and 26° 51′ N. lat., and between 81° 12′ and 81° 39′ E. long. Area, 297 square miles, of which 181 are cultivated. Pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent changes), 206,663, viz. 104,445 males and 102,218 females; including Hindus, 184,333; Muhammadans, 21,317. Number of villages or townships, 372; average density of population, 685 per square mile.

Haidargarh.—*Parganá* of Haidargarh *tahsíl*, Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Siddhaur *parganá*, on the east by Subehá *parganá*, on the south by Bachhráwán *parganá* of Rái Bareli, and on the west by Lucknow. Originally occupied by the Bhars, who were dispossessed by Sayyid Míran, and afterwards extirpated by Sultán Ibráhim of Jaunpur. It is now chiefly in the possession of the Amethia clan of Rájputs. Area, 103 square miles, of which 59 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £18,819, or an average of 5s. 8¼d. per acre. Autumn crops—rice of excellent quality, cotton, hemp, millet, and pulses; spring crops—wheat, barley, gram, linseed, peas, sugar, tobacco, and poppy. Of the 118 villages of which the *parganá* is composed, 61½ are *tálukdárí*, 29½ *zamíndárí*, 26 *pattidárí*, and 1 *bhayachára*. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 67,676; Muhammadans, 3882; total, 71,558, viz. 36,307 males and 35,251 females; average density of population, 694 per square mile. Grain is exported to Lucknow, Sultánpur, Dariábád, and Cawnpore; principal imports, cotton and salt. Saltpetre is manufactured in four villages to the extent of 35,000 *maunds*, or 1277 tons, annually. Seven market villages.

Haidargarh.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; 25 miles east of the headquarters station. Founded by Amír-ud-daulá Haídar Beg Khán, Prime Minister of Nawáb Asif-ud-daulá. It is now the seat of the *tahsíl* revenue courts, but otherwise of little importance.

Haidargarh.—Pass in South Kanara District, Madras.—*See* HASSANGADI.

Hailákándi.—Subdivision in the south of Cáchár District, Assam. Area, 344 square miles; pop. (1872), 65,671.

Hailákándi.—Village in the south of Cáchár District, Assam, on the right or east bank of the Dháleswari river. Headquarters of the

Subdivision of the same name, and also a *tháná* or police station. It gives its name to a fertile valley, which is entirely laid under water by the floods of every rainy season.

Haing-gyí (or *Negrais*).—An island in the Bassein or Nga-won river, in Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. 15° 54′ N., long. 94° 20′ E. It is situated near the western bank, 3½ miles distant from Pagoda Point, and is rendered conspicuous by a hill at its northern end, which slopes away towards the centre. A narrow belt of level ground skirts the coast. The channel between Negrais and the Bassein is 1 mile broad on the south and 4½ miles broad on the north, opposite the abandoned station of Dalhousie. For the history of Negrais Island, see BASSEIN DISTRICT.

Hajamro.—River of Sind; one of the central deltaic channels of the Indus; debouches into the sea south-east of Karáchi (Kurrachee), in lat. 24° 6′ N., and long. 67° 22′ E.

Hájíganj.—Town and headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*), in Tipperah District, Bengal; situated on the Dákátiá river. Lat 23° 15′ N., long. 90° 53′ 30″ E. An important seat of river traffic. Betel-nut is extensively cultivated, and a considerable trade in the article carried on with Dacca, Náráinganj, and Calcutta.

Hájípur.—Subdivision of Muzaffarpur District, Bengal. Area, 662 square miles, with 1306 villages and 77,203 houses; lying between 25° 29′ and 26° 1′ N. lat., and between 85° 6′ 45″ and 85° 41′ E. long. Pop. (1872), 543,845—Hindus, 493,308, or 90·7 per cent.; Muhammadans, 50,489, or 9·3 per cent.; Christians, 44; 'others,' 4;—males, 257,373, and females, 286,472. Proportion of males in total population, 47·3 per cent.; average density of population, 822 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·97; persons per village, 416; houses per square mile, 113; persons per house, 7·6. The Subdivision, which was formed in 1865, comprises the 4 police circles of Lálganj, Mahwá, Hájíganj, and Mohnár.

Hájípur.—Municipal town and headquarters of Hájípur Subdivision, and a police circle (*tháná*), Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the right or east bank of the Little Gandak, a short distance above its confluence with the Ganges opposite Patná. Lat. 25° 40′ 50″ N., long. 85° 14′ 24″ E. Said to have been founded by one Hájí Ilyás, about 500 years ago, the supposed ramparts of whose fort, enclosing an area of 360 *bighás*, are still visible. The old town is reported to have reached as far as Mohnár *tháná*, 20 miles to the east, and to a village called Gadái-sarái on the north. Hájípur figures conspicuously in the history of the struggles between Akbar and his rebellious Afghán governors of Bengal, being twice besieged and captured by the imperial troops, in 1572 and again in 1574. Its command of water traffic in three directions makes the town a place of considerable commercial im-

portance. Pop. (1872), 22,306—viz. Hindus, 18,765; Muhammadans, 3510; Christians, 27; 'others,' 4;—males, 10,737, and 11,569 females. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £457; expenditure, £648; incidence of taxation, 4⅞d. per head of population within municipal limits. Within the limits of the old fort is a small stone mosque, very plain, but of peculiar architecture, attributed to Hájí Ilyás. Its top consists of three rounded domes, the centre one being the largest. They are built of horizontally placed rows of stones, each row being a circle, and each successive circle being more contracted than the one immediately below it, until the key-stone is reached, which is also circular. Two other mosques and a small Hindu temple are in the town or its immediate vicinity. A Buddhist temple is surrounded by a *sarái* or rest-house, built for the accommodation of the late Sir Jang Bahádur, on the occasion of his visits from Nepál. Besides the ordinary courts, the town contains a school, police station, post office, charitable dispensary, and distillery.

Hájo.—Village in the north of Kámrúp District, Assam, near the left or east bank of the Baraliyá river, and about 6 miles north of the Brahmaputra. In the immediate neighbourhood is the celebrated Mahámuni temple, situated on the summit of a low hill. The place is annually visited by thousands of pilgrims from all parts of India, not only Hindus, but also Buddhists from beyond the Himálaya, who venerate it as a spot rendered sacred by the presence of the founder of their faith.

Hála.—Deputy Collectorate of HAIDARABAD (HYDERABAD) DISTRICT, Sind, situated between 25° 8′ and 26° 15′ N. lat., and between 68° 16′ 30″ and 69° 17′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by the Naushahro Deputy Collectorate; on the south by Haidarábád *táluk* and Tando; on the east by the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency; and on the west by the Indus. Area, 2500 square miles; population (1872), 216,139. The Deputy Collectorate is divided into 4 *táluks*, viz. Hála, Alahyár-jo-Tando, Sháhdádpur, Mírpur Khás. It contains 245 villages and townships, 14 of which have a population over 800. In general aspect, it is an unbroken plain, sandy and unprofitable, on the eastern side; but intersected by canals and fringed with forest on the west. These canals, 95 in number, are, with the exception of one, Government property; they have an aggregate length of 1874 miles, and yield an annual income of £27,995. Temperature, 74° to 103°; average annual rainfall, about 6 inches. The only peculiarity in the soil is an unctuous earth called *cháníah*, said to have been obtained from lakes near the town of Hála, and eaten, especially by women. *Cháníah* is now the name of a compound of soda, largely used in the glazing of pottery. Snakes abound, and are very destructive to human life. The chief tree is the *bábul*. The forest area

aggregate 24,764 acres, yielding in 1873-74 a revenue of £3066. They were all planted between 1790 and 1830 by the Mírs of Sind. The fisheries, eight in number, yield a revenue of £130.

The population of the Deputy Collectorate (216,139) was divided in the Census of 1872 as follows:—Muhammadans, 176,773; and Hindus, 39,366. In character, habits, dress, etc., the inhabitants of Hála are not distinguished by any peculiarities from those of the rest of the District. As elsewhere in Sind, the prevalent crimes are cattle-stealing, theft, and housebreaking. The criminal returns for 1874 show a total of 1611 offences, or 1 in 134 of the population. The civil returns for the same year give a total of 1296 suits, value £14,578. The chief revenue and magisterial charge is vested in a Deputy Collector and Magistrate, who has under him a *mukhtiárkár* for each of the 4 *táluks*, and a *tapádár* for each of the 24 *tapás*. The only civil court in the Deputy Collectorate is that at the town of Hála, presided over by a native subordinate judge, who goes thence on circuit annually to Adam-jo-Tando, Alahyár-jo-Tando, Mírpur Khás, and Sháhdádpur. The Hála police number 164 officers and men, or 1 constable to 1317 of the population. Forty-three of the whole are mounted. The only jails are the 4 lock-ups at the *mukhtiárkár* stations.

The revenue of the Deputy Collectorate for 1873-74 was £39,314, being £36,970 imperial and £2344 local, derived from the following sources:—*Imperial*—Land tax, £29,285; *abkári*, £3250; stamps, £3054; salt, £124; registration, £522; postal and miscellaneous, £669: *Local*—Cesses on land and *sayer*, £1782; percentage on alienated lands, £65; ferry funds, £363; fisheries, £130. A topographical survey for the purposes of assessment was completed in 1865. The rates of the Settlement concluded in 1871-72 for ten years, vary from 1s. for inferior soils to 8s. for high-class irrigated lands. Tenants, as a rule, pay the *zamíndár* in kind, but the Government dues are now received in money. The prevailing tenure is the ordinary *zamíndárí* of HAIDARABAD DISTRICT, but *jágírs* are very numerous, 98 grantees holding between them 250,000 acres, 97,000 of which are cultivable. The total number of *seri* grants is 68, aggregating 912 acres. The number of *mafidars* is 48.

There are 9 municipalities within the Deputy Collectorate—Alahyár-jo-Tando, Adam-jo-Tando, Hála, Ghotána, Khokhar, Matárí, Mírpur, Narsapur, Sháhdádpur—with an annual aggregate income of £2535. The only dispensaries are at Hála and Alahyár-jo-Tando—total admissions (during 1874), 4543; average daily attendance, 40. There are in all 20 Government schools, with an attendance of 849; the indigenous schools number 11, with 120 scholars. At the village of Saláro, near Hála, an experimental cotton farm and economic garden is maintained by Government.

The trade of the Deputy Collectorate is confined almost wholly to agricultural produce. Exports, £139,798; imports, £85,163. Transit trade, about £190,000. Lacquered ware, glazed pottery (for which prizes were gained by the Hála workmen at the Karáchi (Kurrachee) Exhibition of 1869), and striped cloths called *súsis* and *khesis* are the chief manufactures. There are in all 22 fairs, the chief one (a Hindu) being attended annually by 35,000 persons; the remainder are Muhammadan fairs, with an average attendance of 3000. Roads aggregate nearly 600 miles in length; none are metalled, and very few even partially bridged.

The chief antiquities are the ruins of BRAHMANABAD and Khudábád. The latter, 2 miles from Hála (New), was once the favourite residence of the Tálpur chiefs, and is said to have rivalled Haidarábád in size and population. The ancient tombs at Lál-Udero, Kámáro, and Myo Vahio are all noteworthy.

Hála.—*Táluk* of the Hála Deputy Collectorate, Sind. Pop. (1872), 78,237; area, 524 square miles; revenue for 1873-74, £13,467, being £12,471 imperial and £996 local.

Hála, New.—Municipal town and chief town in the Hála Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád District, Sind; formerly known as Murtizábád. Lat. 25° 48′ 30″ N., long. 68° 27′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 4096—including 2646 Muhammadans (mainly agriculturists of the Memon tribe), and 1234 Hindus (chiefly Loháno s and Bhabras, traders). Municipal revenue (1873-74), £275; expenditure, £263; rate of taxation, 11½d. per head. The local trade consists chiefly of grain, piece-goods, *ghí*, cotton, and sugar, valued approximately at £3900. The transit trade (in the same articles) is valued at about £700. Hála has long been famous for its glazed pottery and tiles, made from a fine clay obtained from the Indus, mixed with powdered flints. The ornamentation is brilliant and tasteful. The *súsis* or trouser-cloths, for which Hála is also celebrated, are manufactured to the value of £750 yearly. Hála was built about 1800 A.D. in consequence of HALA (OLD), 2 miles distant, being threatened with encroachment by the Indus. Among the antiquities round which the new town has grown up are the tomb and mosque of a Pír or saint, who died in the 16th century, and in whose honour a fair, largely attended by Muhammadans from all parts of the Province, is held twice a year. The British Government contributed, in 1876, £100 to the repair of this tomb. Hála is situated on the Alíganj Canal, and is immediately connected with the Trunk Road at two points. It contains a subordinate judge's and *mukhtiárkár's* courts, dispensary, and travellers' bungalow.

Hála, Old.—Town in the Hála Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 2467, mainly agriculturists. It is said to have been founded about 1422 A.D., but was partially abandoned in

1800 A.D. owing to threatened encroachments of the Indus; and HALA (NEW) was built in its stead, 2 miles off.

Háláni.—Town in the Naushahro Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 1633, mainly agriculturists; the Muhammadans are chiefly Sahatas, and the Hindus are Lohános and Punjabis. Export trade in grain; annual value, £700. Near Háláni the Tálpur forces defeated in 1781 the last of the Kalhora dynasty, and the tombs of the chiefs who fell in the battle mark the spot. The town lies on the high road, and is about 200 years old.

Halaria. — One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consists of 4 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £1500; tribute of £10 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £7 to Junágarh.

Haldá. — River of Chittagong District, Bengal; one of the chief tributaries of the Karnaphulí. Navigable by native boats for a distance of 24 miles throughout the year, and for 35 miles in the rainy season. One of the principal fishing rivers of the District.

Haldí.—River of Southern Bengal, rising in lat. 22° 18′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 13′ 15″ E., near the western boundary of Midnapur District. Flows south-south-east till it falls into the Húglí, in lat. 22° 0′ 30″ N., long. 88° 6′ 15″ E., near Nandígáon, in the Tamlúk Subdivision, a few miles south of the confluence of the Rúpnáráyan and Húglí. The Haldí is a large river at its mouth, and is navigable throughout the year up to the point where it receives its principal tributary, the KASAI, beyond which it dwindles away into an inconsiderable stream. Its other tributary is the Káliághái, a non-navigable stream, which takes its rise in the north-west of Midnapur, and empties itself into the Haldí near Náráyangarh police station. The Haldi is connected with the Rúpnáráyan on the north, and with the Rasúlpur river on the south, by a tidal navigable canal.—*See* RUPNARAYAN and RASALPUR CANAL.

Halebid ('*Old Ruins*').—Village in Hassan District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 12′ 20″ N., long. 76° 2′ E.; pop. (1871), 1207. The site of the ancient city of Dorásamudra or Dvárávatipura, the capital of the Hoysala Ballála dynasty. It was apparently rebuilt in the 13th century by King Vira Someswara, described in certain inscriptions as the founder. To him is assigned the erection of the two magnificent temples in honour of Siva, which rank among the masterpieces of Hindu art. The larger of these, the Haisaleswara temple, though never completed, has elicited from Mr. Fergusson the opinion that, 'taken altogether, it is perhaps the building on which the advocate of Hindu architecture would desire to take his stand.' Its dimensions are roughly 200 feet square, and 25 feet high above the terrace on which it stands. The material is an indurated potstone of volcanic origin, found in the neighbourhood, which takes a polish like marble. The

ornamentation consists of a series of friezes one above another, each about 700 feet long, and carved with the most exquisite elaboration. One frieze alone represents a procession of not less than 2000 elephants. The smaller or Kaitabheswara temple has unfortunately been entirely split to pieces in recent years by the growth of trees and their roots through the joins of the stones. Some of the most perfect sculptures have been removed to the Museum at Bangalore. There are also ruins of Jain *bastis* and of other buildings in the neighbourhood. The city of Dorásamudra was taken and sacked by the Muhammadans in 1310, and the capital of the Ballálas transferred to Tondanur.

Haleri.—Village in the territory of Coorg, which has an historical interest as the first settlement of the family of Lingáyats from Ikkeri in Mysore, who established themselves as Rájás of Coorg in the 17th century. The old palace is still in existence. It is built on the usual plan of Coorg houses, though on a larger scale, and with breastworks and other defences. Lat. 12° 27′ N., long. 75° 52′ E.

Halhaliá.—River of Bengal, formerly a considerable stream rising in Maimansinh District, which has now almost disappeared, or been absorbed by the Brahmaputra or Jamuná. Branches of it, however, remain on both sides of the Jamuná, that on the west bank being much the larger of the two, and flowing in a very tortuous course through Bográ District, for about 30 miles, until it joins the Karátoyá at Khánpur. The lower part of the Halhaliá is navigable for large boats. Chief markets on the banks—Kaliání, Páchibárí, Dhunot, Gosáinbárí, and Chandanbásiá. The Halhaliá is locally confounded with another river, the Manás, which has almost disappeared in consequence of the same causes to which the Halhaliá itself owes its diminished size.

Haliyál.—Municipal town in Supá Subdivision of North Kanara District, Bombay. It lies in lat. 15° 19′ 50″ N., and long. 74° 48′ E., to the south-west of Dhárwár. Pop. (1872), 5071; municipal revenue (1874-75), £363; rate of taxation, 1s. 4d. per head. Post office and dispensary.

Hallár (or *Halawar; otherwise known as Nawánagar*).—A tract of country in Káthiáwár, Bombay; lying between 21° 44′ and 22° 55′ N. lat., and 69° 8′ and 71° 2′ E. long. Takes its name from the Halla Rájputs, and includes, among others, the chiefships of NAWANAGAR, RAJKOT, GONDAL, DHROL, and KOTRA SUNGANI. Limits of tract not strictly defined, but includes an area of about 5000 square miles.

Hálon.—River of Berar, rising in 22° 6′ N. lat., and 81° 5′ E. long., about 8 miles south of the Chilpíghát in the Máikal range; flows northwards for about 60 miles through Bálághát and Mandla Districts, Central Provinces; and falls into the Burhner, in lat. 22° 40′ N., and long. 80° 47′ E. Average elevation of its valley, 2000 feet.

[H]alwad.—Fortified town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay [Pre]sidency; 85 miles south-west of Ahmedábád. Pop. (1872), 6391. [Lat]. 23° 1′ N., long. 71° 14′ 30″ E.

Hambar.—Village in Firozpur (Ferozepore) District, Punjab; on the [ro]ad to Ludhiána, 10½ miles west of Firozpur. Lat. 30° 57′ N., long. [..]° 46′ E.

Hamírpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of [th]e North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 5′ and 26° 10′ N. lat., [a]nd between 79° 22′ 45″ and 80° 25′ 15″ E. long. Area, 2287 square [m]iles; population in 1872, 529,137. Hamírpur forms the south-western District of the Allahábád Division. It is bounded on the north by the Jumna (Jamuná); on the north-west by the Native State of Báoni and the Betwa river; on the west by the Dhasán river; on the south by the Alípura, Chhatarpur, and Charkhári States; and on the east by Bánda District. It encloses the Native States of Saríla, Jigni, and Bíhat, besides portions of Charkhári and Garauli. The administrative headquarters are at the town of Hamirpur; but Rath has the largest population in the District.

Physical Aspects.—Hamírpur forms part of the great plain of Bundelkhand, which stretches between the banks of the Jumna (Jamuná) and the central Vindhyán plateau. The District is in shape an irregular parallelogram, with a general slope northward from the low hills on the southern boundary toward the valleys of the Jumna and Betwa, which limit it on the north and west. The hilly southern region is composed of scattered outlying spurs from the main line of the Vindhyán range. Their general elevation does not exceed 300 feet above the Jumna valley, or a total of about 800 feet above the level of the sea, and their sides are almost bare of trees or jungle. They are rendered picturesque, however, by the artificial lakes of Máhoba, for which the District is celebrated. These magnificent reservoirs were constructed by the Chandel Rájás, about 800 years ago, for purposes of irrigation and as sheets of ornamental water. They are hemmed round on two or three sides by rocky hills, while the outlets are stopped by dams of massive masonry, whose antiquity conceals all traces of their artificial origin. Many of them enclose craggy islets or peninsulas, crowned by the ruins of granite temples, exquisitely carved and decorated. The largest lake has a circumference of about 5 miles. As we descend from the hill and lake country, we arrive at the general plain of th[e] District, which spreads northward, almost unbroken by isolated heights in an arid and treeless level towards the broken banks of the river[s]. Of these, the principal are the Betwa and its tributary the Dhasá[n], both of which are unnavigable. On the triangle formed by the[ir] junction with the stream of the Jumna stands the town of Hamírp[ur], which is thus isolated from the remainder of the District by t[he]

Betwa river and the Native State of Báoni. The Hamírpur bank of the Jumna is high and rocky; its opposite shore is low and shelving. There is little waste land, except in the ravines by the river-sides. The deep black soil of Bundelkhand, known as *már*, retains the moisture under a dried and rifted surface, and renders the District fertile; but unhappily the *káns* grass, the scourge of the Bundelkhand agriculturist, has overrun much of the country.

History.—The early annals of Bundelkhand, of which Province Hamírpur forms a portion, have been briefly sketched in the article on BANDA. During the Chandel supremacy, from the 9th to the 14th century, MAHOBA, on the south of the District, was the capital of that dynasty. The Chandels adorned the town and its neighbourhood with many splendid edifices, remains of which still exist in great numbers; besides constructing the noble artificial lakes already described. The last of their Rájás, Parmál, was defeated in the year 1183 by Prithi-ráj, the Chauhán ruler of Delhi; after which disaster the Chandel princes abandoned Máhoba and fixed their capital at the hill fort of KALINJAR, in Bánda District. About twelve years later, Máhoba was conquered by Kutab-ud-dín, the general of Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori, and, with occasional interruptions, remained in the hands of the Musalmáns for 500 years. In 1680, the District came into the possession of Chhatar Sál, the great national hero of the Bundelas, and was the theatre of many battles during his long struggle with the imperial forces. On his death, about 1734, he assigned to his ally, the Peshwá of the Marhattás, one-third of his territories; and Máhoba formed a portion of the region so granted. The larger part of the present District of Hamírpur fell to his son Jagatráj. During the next seventy years the District continued under the government of his descendants, who, however, carried on among themselves that intestine warfare which was universal in Bundelkhand throughout the latter half of the 18th century. Rival Rájás had forts in every village, and one after the other collected their revenue from the same estates. Moreover, the Bundela princes were opposed by the Marhattá chieftains; and Alí Bahádur, an illegitimate descendant of the Peshwá's who had made himself Nawáb of Bánda, succeeded in 1790 in annexing a portion of the District. He was defeated by the British, and died in 1802. The British District of Bundelkhand was formed in the succeeding year (1803), a part being granted to our ally, Rájá Himmat Bahádur, as the price of his allegiance. The town of Máhoba itself, with the surrounding country, remained in the hands of the Pandits of JALAUN, until, on the death of their last representative in 1840, it lapsed to the British. The Sub-division known as Jáitpur was ruled by the descendants of Chhatar Sál until 1842, when the last Rájá, believing that our reverses at Kabul would prove fatal to British rule, revolted, and having been easily

captured, was removed to Cawnpore, receiving from us a pension of £200 a month. Jáitpur was handed over to another claimant, who mortgaged it to the Government and died without issue in 1849. His territories lapsed to Government, and have since formed a part of Hamírpur District. When the British first occupied Hamírpur in 1803, they found it in the same wretched condition as the remainder of Bundelkhand. The land had been impoverished by the long war of independence carried on under Chhatar Sál; overrun and ravaged by predatory leaders during the disastrous period of Marhattá aggression; and devastated by robber chiefs, who levied the revenues on their own account, granting receipts for the payment, which the authorized collectors were obliged to accept. As early as 1819, the attention of Government was called to the fact that many estates were being relinquished by the *zamíndárs*, through their inability to meet the demands for the land revenue. In 1842, land in Hamírpur District was reported to be utterly valueless, and many instances were adduced in which purchasers of estates had been completely ruined through over-assessment. Several estates were held by Government for arrears of revenue, because no purchasers could be found for them. A new land settlement was effected in 1842 on a greatly reduced assessment. On the outbreak of the Mutiny, Hamírpur exhibited the same return to anarchy which characterized the whole of Bundelkhand. On the 13th of June 1857, the 56th Native Infantry broke into mutiny, and the massacre of Europeans began. Only one Christian escaped with life. The surrounding native chiefs set up rival claims to portions of the British territory, and plundered all the principal towns. The Charkhári Rájá alone maintained a wavering allegiance, which grew firmer as the forces of General Whitlock approached Máhoba. That town was reached in September 1858, and the fort of Srínagar was destroyed. After a short period of desultory guerilla warfare in the hilly regions of Bundelkhand, the rebels were effectually quelled, and the work of re-organization began. Since the Mutiny, the condition of Hamírpur seems to have improved; but it has not yet recovered from the long anarchy of the Marhattá rule, and the excessive taxation of the early British period. The poor and neglected aspect of the homesteads, the careless and apathetic appearance of the people, and the wide expanse of shadeless plain, all bear witness to the prolonged disorganization and mistaken economy of former days.

People.—The Census of 1842 and that of 1853 did not include the whole of the present District, which has since been enlarged by the addition of Máhoba and Jáitpur; and they are consequently of little use for purposes of comparison. The Census of 1865 gives a population of 520,941 persons, and that of 1872 states the number as 529,137, showing an increase of 8196, or 1·57 per cent. In 1872, there

were 121,011 houses; number of persons per house, 4·37; houses per square mile, 52·88; inhabitants per square mile, 231·21. Classified according to sex, there were 276,196 males, and 252,941 females; proportion of males, 52·19 per cent. The preponderance of males is due partly to the unwillingness of the Rájputs to state the number of their women, and partly to the former prevalence of female infanticide. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males, 97,904; females, 83,909; total, 181,813, or 34·36 per cent. As regards religious divisions, the Hindus numbered 493,877, or 93·6 per cent.; and the Musalmáns, 33,658, or 6·4 per cent. Of the Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 58,637, or 11·1 per cent.; Kshattriyas, 43,092, or 8·1 per cent.; Vaisyas, 19,147, or 3·7 per cent.; and Súdras, 373,001, or 70·7 per cent. The Bráhmans are mainly engaged in agriculture, and have consequently lost much of the respect due to their caste. The Rájputs have been very minutely reckoned in the Census, in order to discover which classes amongst them are addicted to infanticide. They amount to 62 clans; three of which were found to be specially guilty of the practice—namely, the Parihárs, Chauháns, and Bais. The Chandels and Bundelas, the old dominant classes, have now sunk to 548 and 612 respectively; most of whom still cling to the neighbourhood of Máhoba, the seat of their former supremacy. The Bais are far the most numerous of the Rájput classes in the District. Among the Vaisyas or trading classes the only division of any peculiarity is that of the Márwárís, who number 200. They act as bankers and money-lenders, but they have also acquired much landed property. Among the Súdras or low castes, the most numerous are the Lodhís, the Chámárs, and the Korís. The Musalmáns are the descendants of converted Hindus, who were originally Thákurs, and their habits are still much the same as those of their fellow-Rájputs. The Census of 1872 returned 31,570 landowners, 207,636 agriculturists, and 289,931 persons engaged in other occupations. There are very few wealthy inhabitants, the landowners being often scarcely at all better off than their labourers, and living in much the same style. There are no native Christians in the District, nor has any settlement been effected by the Bráhma Samáj. The Musalmáns are making no converts. The District contains 6 towns with a population of more than 5000 persons—namely, Rath, 14,515; Hamirpur, 7007; Mahoba, 6977; Maudha, 6025; Sumerpur, 5599; and Jaitpur, 5159. The urban population is on the decrease. The language in common use is Bundelkhandí, which is a dialect of Hindí.

Agriculture.—The staple produce of the District is grain of various sorts, the most important being gram. Other pulses, wheat, and millet are also largely cultivated. The autumn crops are heavier than the spring, cotton being the most valuable amongst them. Its cultivation is on

the increase. Out of a total area of 1,464,641 acres, 320,057 acres are returned as barren, and 1,144,584 as cultivable, of which latter area only 762,212 acres are actually under cultivation. Manure is little used, except for garden land. Irrigation is practised on only 16,000 acres, chiefly in the south, where water can be obtained from the artificial lakes constructed by the Chandel princes. There are fourteen small canals connected with these lakes, and belonging to Government; but they supply water to an area of only 820 acres. The remainder of the irrigated land is watered by hand labour. The out-turn of *bájra*, a kind of millet much grown in the District, is about £1, 1s. 6d. per acre; that of *til*, an oil-seed, about £1, 4s. per acre. In Hamírpur, as elsewhere in Bundelkhand, the cultivators have suffered much from the spread of the *káns* grass, a noxious weed, which overruns the fields and is found to be almost ineradicable wherever it has once obtained a footing. It is usual to abandon the lands thus attacked, in the hope that the *káns* may use up the soil, and so finally kill itself out, which it is said to do in from twelve to fifteen years. The peasantry are hopelessly in debt, and careless as to comfort or appearances. Most of the landowners have no capital, and the few wealthy *zamíndárs* are foolishly penurious in all matters of improvement. The land is for the most part cultivated by tenants-at-will. Out of 1159 estates in the District, 657 are held on *zamíndárí* tenure, in which the rights of the coparceners are denoted by fractions of the rupee; 317 by *pattidárí*, possession in severalty; and 185 by *bháyachára*, or brotherhood, in which mode of tenure the gain or loss is distributed by fixed shares, and the revenue apportioned by custom. Rents vary much with the nature of the soil; the best lands are returned at from 12s. to £1, 4s. per acre; the poorest at from 2s. to 4s. Few farms extend to 100 acres; from 20 to 25 acres form a fair-sized holding. The rates of wages are as follows:—Smiths, 4½d. to 6d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 3¾d. to 4½d.; labourers in towns, 3d.—in villages, 2¼d. Wages have risen from 15 to 100 per cent. during the last twenty years. The average prices of food grains for the ten years 1861-71 are as follows:—Gram, 4s. 8d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 4s. 5¾d. per cwt.; wheat, 6s. 2¼d. per cwt.; barley, 4s. 5¾d. per cwt. On the whole, prices have been rising of late years.

Natural Calamities.—The District of Hamírpur is little subject to blight or flood; but droughts and their concomitant, famine, are unhappily common. The last great famine was that of 1837, which produced so deep an effect upon the native mind that the peasantry still employ it as an era by which to calculate their ages. The scarcity of 1868-69 was severely felt in Hamírpur, though most of the deaths which it induced were due to disease rather than to actual starvation. It pressed more heavily on the upland villages than on the country near the banks of the Jumna. Symptoms of distress first appeared early in

the year 1869, and the scarcity was not allayed till November. Relief measures were adopted in March, partly by gratuitous distributions, chiefly by means of local works. During the whole period of distress, a daily average of 546 persons received gratuitous aid, and 2736 persons were employed on famine works. Gram, the staple food of the people, rose from its average of 4s. 8d. per cwt. to a maximum of 10s. 8d. per cwt. in September. Famine rates may be considered to be reached when gram sells at 8s. 3½d. per cwt., and Government relief then becomes necessary. This test, however, cannot altogether be relied on, as the cultivators cease to employ labour on the approach of scarcity, and prices become merely nominal, the poorer classes having no money to purchase food. In portions of the District, a regular scale of remission of revenue and rent, in famines of varying intensities, has been drawn up, and neither Government nor the *zamíndárs* are permitted to recover more than the stipulated proportion. The means of communication are now probably sufficient to avert the extremity of famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of the Hamírpur District is chiefly carried on by means of its great river highway—the Jumna. The cotton and grain, which form the staple exports, are carried downward; while rice, sugar, tobacco, and Manchester goods constitute the chief imports upward. The navigation between Allahábád and Agra is rendered dangerous by shoals, rocks, and sunken trees. Efforts have been made to improve this part of the river, but with little success. About one-fifth of the grain raised in the District is exported, and the remainder used for home consumption. The manufactures consist of coarse cotton cloth and soapstone ornaments. No railway passes through the District, and the nearest station is Mauhár, on the East Indian main line, about 30 miles from the town of Hamírpur. There is only one metalled road, between Hamírpur and Naugáon, 70 miles in length; and there are four other fair-weather roads. The only printing-press in the District is at Hamírpur; it is used for lithographic work in Hindí and Urdu.

Administration.—The first land settlement, in 1805, included only a small portion of the present District; and much of the revenue was necessarily remitted, owing to the depredations of freebooting chiefs. The second arrangement, two years later, was equally futile, from the same cause, and from the badness of the seasons. From 1809 till 1842 the assessments were several times increased, in face of the fact that the revenue could not be collected, through the poverty of the *zamíndárs*. Large balances were constantly accruing. Unfortunately the area and fiscal divisions for these settlements varied so much that the statistics are not available for purposes of comparison. In 1842, the District had become so impoverished that a considerable decrease in the Government demand became imperatively necessary

The incidence of the land revenue was accordingly altered in that year from 3s. 10⅞d. on the cultivated area, to 3s. 3⅛d. This settlement, which continued in force until 1872, is considered to have been a fair one, and succeeded in removing the pressure of former assessments. The total land revenue demand for 1870-71 amounted to £108,410, of which £108,332 was collected. The number of estates was registered at 1127, and the proprietors or coparceners at 28,086. Average land revenue paid by each estate, £96, 4s., and by each proprietor, £3, 18s. The District is administered by a Magistrate, Assistant Magistrate, Settlement Officer, Deputy Collector, and five *tahsíldárs*. There are 10 magisterial courts. In 1871, there were 25 police stations, with 534 men; giving 1 policeman to every 4·28 square miles and to every 975 inhabitants. The cost of the police was £8058, chiefly paid from imperial funds. The regular police were supplemented by 1953 village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), or 1 to every 242 inhabitants. The total number of persons convicted for all offences, in 1871, was 1088, or 1 person in every 486 of the population. The District contains one jail, the average daily number of prisoners in which amounted to 400 in 1850, 72 in 1860, and 129 in 1870, or ·076, ·013, and ·024 of the inhabitants, respectively. Although the Musalmáns only number 6·4 per cent. of the whole population, they formed as much as 23·2 per cent. of the prisoners in 1870. Education has spread considerably of late years. In 1850, there were only 1078 persons under instruction in the District. In 1860, there were 104 schools, attended by 1414 pupils, and maintained at a cost of £582. By 1870, the number of schools had increased to 112, and the pupils to 3066; while the amount expended upon education had risen to £1354. The greater part of the expense is borne by Government. In 1872, there were 1023 Hindu males and 4 Hindu females, 856 Muhammadan males and 9 Muhammadan females, who could read and write. The District is divided into 8 fiscal divisions (*parganás*). It contains no municipal towns at present, as Ráth, which for a short time was erected into a municipality, found its trade impaired by the octroi, and was accordingly relieved of its burdens.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Hamírpur District is dry and hot, owing to the absence of shade and the bareness of the soil, except in the neighbourhood of the Máhoba lakes, which cool and moisten the surrounding atmosphere. No accurate thermometrical observations have yet been taken. The rainfall was 17·2 inches in 1868-69 (the year of scarcity); 37·1 in 1869-70; and 38·1 in 1870-71. The two last readings may be accepted as the average of ordinary good seasons. In 1871, the total number of deaths recorded was 11,251, being at the rate of 21·52 to each thousand inhabitants, a figure probably below the truth. Of these, 5804, or 11·14 per thousand, were assigned to fever

(which is endemic in the District), and 3182 to bowel complaints. Hamírpur is comparatively free from small-pox, only ·54 deaths per thousand of the population being due to this cause. Snake-bites and the attacks of wild animals were answerable for 68 deaths; and 38 were attributed to suicide. There are charitable dispensaries at Hamírpur, Máhoba, and Ráth.

Hamírpur.—Northern *tahsíl* of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of the narrow tongue of land enclosed by the confluence of the Betwa and the Jumna (Jamuná), together with a large strip of country on the eastern bank of the former river. Area, 367 square miles, of which 226 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 95,388; land revenue, £21,113; total Government revenue, £22,434; rental paid by cultivators, £39,351; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 9½d.

Hamírpur. — Administrative headquarters of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 58′ N., long. 80° 11′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 7007. Situated on a tongue of land at the confluence of the Betwa and the Jumna (Jamuná), on the right bank of the latter river. Founded, according to tradition, by Hamír Deo, a Karchuli Rájput, expelled from Ulwar (Alwár) by the Muhammadans. Capital of a District under Akbar. Possesses little importance apart from the presence of the civil station. Hamír's fort and a few Musalmán tombs form the only relics of antiquity. Several Europeans were murdered here during the Mutiny. Court-house, police station, hospital, jail, dispensary, school, circuit-house, travellers' bungalow, two *saráis*, *bázár*. No manufactures; small trade in grain. The civil station is small, and deficient in houses and roads. Lies on the route from Bánda to Cawnpore; distant from the former 36 miles, from the latter 39 south, from Kálpi 28 south-east, from Agra 155 south-east, from Allahábád 110 north-west. Local taxation supports a municipal police of 12 men, at an annual cost of £81.

Hamírpur.—Southern *tahsíl* of Kángrá District, Punjab; consisting of a wild mountain country, but more thickly inhabited than the other portions of the District. Area, 660 square miles; pop. (1868), 180,132; persons per square mile, 273.

Hampi.—Ruined city in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 19′ 50″ N., long. 76° 30′ 10″ E.; on the south bank of the Tungabhadra, 36 miles north-west of Bellary. The site of the ancient capital of the Vijáyanagar kings. The ruins cover 9 square miles, including Kamlápur, on the south, and Anagundi, the later seat of the dynasty.

Hampi was founded on the fall of the Ballála dynasty, about 1336 A.D., by two brothers, Bukka and Harihara, whose descendants flourished here till the battle of Tálikot, 1565 A.D., and afterwards at Anagundi, Vellore, and Chandragiri for another century, until finally

overwhelmed by the advancing powers of Bijápur and Golconda. During the two and a quarter centuries that the Vijáyanagar Rájás held the city of Hampi, they extended it and beautified it with palaces and temples.

Edwardo Barbessa describes the capital as 'of great extent, highly populous, and the seat of an active commerce in country diamonds, rubies from Pegu, silks of China and Alexandria and Cuinabar, camphor, musk, pepper, and sandal from Malabar.' The palaces of the king and his ministers, and the temples, are described as 'stately buildings of stone,' but the greater part of the population lived in 'hovels of straw and mud.' In the travels of Cæsar Frederic, the palace is thus spoken of: 'I have seen many kings' courts, yet have never seen anything to compare with the royal palace of Bijianuggur, which hath nine gates. First, when you go into that part where the king lodged, there are five great gates, kept by captains and soldiers. Within these are four lesser gates, which are kept by porters, and through these you enter into a very fair court at the end.' He describes the city as being 24 miles round, enclosing several hills. The ordinary dwellings were mean buildings with earthen walls, but the three palaces and the pagodas were all built of fine marble. Of the remains of all this greatness now visible, Mr. Kelsall, in his *Manual*, says: 'Many of the buildings are now so destroyed that it is difficult to say what they were originally meant for, but the massive style of architecture and the huge stones that have been employed in their construction at once attract attention. Close to Kamalapur there is a fine stone aqueduct, and a building which has at some time or other been a bath. The use of the arch in the doorways, and the embellishments used in decorating the inner rooms, show that the design of this building was considerably modified by the Musalmáns, even if it was not constructed by them altogether. A little to the south of this is a very fine temple, of which the outer and inner walls are covered with spirited basso-relievos, representing hunting scenes and incidents in the *Rámáyana*. The four centre pillars are of a kind of black marble, handsomely carved. The flooring of the temple, originally large slabs of stone, has been torn up and utterly ruined by persons in search of treasure, which is supposed to be buried both here and in other parts of the ruins. The use of another covered building close by, with numerous underground passages, has not been ascertained. It also is covered with basso-relievos, in one of which a lion is represented. At a little distance is the building generally known as the "Elephant Stables," and there seems no reason to doubt that it was used for this purpose. Two other buildings, which, with the "Elephant Stables," form roughly three sides of a square, are said to have been the concert hall and the council room. Both, but especially the latter, have been

very fine buildings.' Besides these, the remains of the *zanáná* and the arena are still visible. But the huge monoliths applied to various purposes form perhaps the most distinctive feature of these ruins—one, a water-trough, is 41¼ feet long; another, a statue of Siva, 35 feet high. There are two fine temples, between which the road passes, but which are remarkable for nothing but the enormous size of the stones which have been used in their construction. Masses of cut granite, many of them 30 feet in length by 4 in depth, are seen high up in the wall, and no explanation can be given of the mode in which they were placed in their present position. There are also several temples in a fair state of preservation, notably one dedicated to Vishnu, about three-quarters of a mile from the palace, and close to the river. It is entirely of granite, and contains some splendid monolithic pillars, richly carved. The inscriptions at Hampi have contributed materially to our knowledge of Vijáyanagar history. There is still a great annual festival here, although the village is insignificant in size, with a population of less than 500.

Handiá.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the northern bank of the Ganges. Area, 286 square miles, of which 172 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 166,677; land revenue, £29,165; total Government revenue, £32,097; rental paid by cultivators, £40,880; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 2¼d.

Handiá.—Ancient Muhammadan town in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, on the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river; with a dismantled stone fort, said to have been built by Hoshang Sháh Ghorí of Málwá. Lat. 22° 28′ 30″ N., long. 77° 2′ E. Handiá was the headquarters of a *sarkár* or District under Akbar's rule, and, lying on the old high-road from the Deccan to Agra, attained considerable size and prosperity, as appears from its ruins. On the withdrawal of the Mughal officials, about 1700 A.D., and the construction of a better road across the Vindhyá Hills, *viâ* Indore, Handiá sank into insignificance. The Marhattás gave it up to the British in 1817. Pop. (1870), 1992.

Hangarkotta.—Port in South Kanara District, Madras; situated about 5 miles from Old Bárkúr, at the mouth of the Silánadi river, and 10 miles north of Udipi. Called in the Government accounts the port of Bárkúr. Considerable export trade in rice (principally to Goa), etc., and import trade in cotton, piece-goods, cocoa-nut oil, and salt from Goa. Value of imports in 1874-75, £3300; exports, £37,900.

Hango.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab; situated near the north-eastern base of the Hangrang Mountains, at the head of a flourishing valley, watered by three tributaries of the river Li. Lat. 31° 49′ N., long. 78° 34′ E. Contains a temple of local reputation, described by Thornton as devoted to a mixed faith, partly Hindu and partly Buddhist. Elevation above sea level, 11,400 feet.

Hangrang. — Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, between Kunáwar and the Chinese territory. Lat. 31° 48′ N., long. 78° 35′ E. Thornton states that the valley to the south is well wooded and cultivated, but the northern slope is thickly covered with snow. Elevation of crest above sea level, 14,800 feet.

Hangu (or *Miranzái*).—Western *tahsíl* of Kohát District, Punjab; consisting of the Miranzái valley, inhabited by a tribe of Bangash Patháns, and annexed in 1851. Two years later, the inhabitants rebelled, and were reduced in 1855. Area, 400 square miles; pop. (1868), 36,060; number of villages, 38.

Hangu.—Village in Kohát District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 33° 32′ N., long. 71° 6′ E. Lies in a small open plain, 25 miles west of Kohát. Picturesquely situated close under steep hills on the north, with 2 shrines, one of which overlooks the village westward. The *tahsíldár* of Hangu is chief of the upper Bangash, and through him Government conducts all its dealings with the Orakzái borderers.

Hánsi.—*Tahsíl* of Hissár District, Punjab, lying between 28° 50′ and 29° 25′ N. lat., and between 75° 50′ 30″ and 76° 22′ E. long.

Hánsi. — Municipal town of Hissár District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 29° 6′ 19″ N., long. 76° 0′ 19″ E.; pop. (1868), 13,563, consisting of 7830 Hindus, 5718 Muhammadans, and 15 Christians. Lies on the Western Jumna Canal, and on the Hissár and Delhi road, 16 miles east of the former town. Founded, according to tradition, by Anang Pál Tuár, King of Delhi. Centre of local administration under Hindus and Muhammadans, and long the principal town of Hariána. Desolated by the famine of 1783, after which it lay in partial ruins for many years. In 1795, the famous adventurer George Thomas, who had seized upon the greater part of Hariána, fixed his headquarters in the town. Thenceforth, Hánsi began to revive; and on the establishment of British rule in 1802, it was made a cantonment, where a considerable force, consisting chiefly of local levies, was stationed. In 1857, the troops mutinied, murdered all Europeans upon whom they could lay their hands, and combined with the wild Rájput tribes in plundering the country. On the restoration of order, it was thought undesirable to maintain the cantonment. A high brick wall, with bastions and loopholes, surrounds the town, while the canal, which flows at its feet, contributes to its beauty by a fringe of handsome trees. Since the Mutiny, however, the houses have largely fallen into decay, and the streets lie comparatively deserted, owing to the removal of the troops. A large dismantled fort overlooks the town on the north. Local trade in country produce—cotton, *ghi*, and cereals. *Tahsíli*, school-house, police station, *sarái.* Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £461, or 9d. per head of population (12,251) within municipal limits.

Hánskháli.—Town and headquarters of a police circle (*thánú*) in

Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Churni river. Lat. 23° 21′ 30″ N., long. 88° 39′ 30″ E. Seat of considerable trade.

Hápur (*Hauper*).—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the western bank of the Ganges, and irrigated by distributaries from the Ganges Canal. Area, 408 square miles, of which 284 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 205,140; land revenue, £29,412; total Government revenue, £32,534; rental paid by cultivators, £59,568; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 3d.

Hápur (*Hauper*).—Ancient town in Meerut District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of Hápur *tahsíl*. Lat. 28° 43′ 20″ N., long. 77° 49′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 14,544, consisting of 8696 Hindus, 5847 Musalmáns, and 1 Christian. Lies on the Meerut and Bulandshahr road, 18 miles south of the former city. Founded, according to tradition, in 983 A.D., by the Dor chieftain Hardatta, from whom it took the name of Harípur. Perron, the French general in the service of the Marhattá chief Sindhia, established in the neighbourhood a system of *jágírs* or grants for his disabled veterans. During the Mutiny, Walidád Khán of Málágarh threatened Hápur, but was obliged by the loyal Játs of Bhatona to retire. Several fine groves surround the town, but the wall and ditch have fallen out of repair, and only the names of the five gates now remain. *Tahsíli*, police station, school-house, dispensary, 3 *saráis*, 28 mosques, 25 temples. Considerable trade in sugar, grain, cotton, timber, bamboos, and brass utensils. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1208; from taxes, £932, or 1s. 3⅜d. per head of the population. Well adapted for horse-breeding; headquarters of the famous Hápur Stud.

Harái.—Chiefship in the north of Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; comprising 91 villages, of which 86 are inhabited. It consists of a mountainous country north of Amarwára, and a lowland tract opening on the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and containing a masonry fort, where the chief resides. He is a Gond, and receives from Government £600 per annum, in commutation of former privileges. Chief village, Harái, lat. 22° 37′ N., long. 79° 16′ E.

Harámak.—Mountain in Kashmír State, Punjab; a peak of the lofty range which bounds that kingdom on the north. Lat. 34° 26′ N., long. 75° E. Thornton states that a small lake, known as Gangá Bal, nestles on its northern slope, and forms an object of great veneration to the Hindus. Estimated elevation above sea level, 13,000 feet.

Haráotí (*Harowtee*).—State in Rájputána.—*See* KOTAH.

Harappa.—Village in Montgomery District, Punjab; lying on the south bank of the Rávi, 16 miles south-east of Kot Kamália. Lat. 30° 40′ N., long. 72° 53′ E. Now a hamlet of no importance, but identified by General Cunningham with the site of a town in

the territory of the Malli, attacked and taken by Alexander the Great. The ruins cover an area 3 miles in circumference, scattered over with large broken bricks. The principal remains occupy a mound forming an irregular square, with sides about half a mile in length. On the western side, where the mass of ruins lie, the mound rises to a height of 60 feet, and encloses solid walls built of huge bricks, and apparently belonging to some extensive building. Coins of early date have been picked up amongst the débris. Tradition assigns the foundation of the ancient city to an eponymous Rájá Harappa. The only modern public building is a police station; but till quite recently, Harappa ranked as headquarters of a *tahsíl.*

Harchoká.—Village in Cháng Bhakár State, Chutiá Nágpur. Lat. 23° 51′ 30″ N., long. 81° 45′ 30″ E.; situated on the Muwáhi river near the northern boundary of the State. Remains of extensive rock excavations, supposed to be temples and monasteries, were discovered here a few years ago.

Hardá.—Western *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 128,543, residing in 413 villages or townships and 23,960 houses; area, 1851 square miles.

Hardá.—Chief town and civil station in Hardá *tahsíl*, Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Lat. 22° 21′ N., long. 77° 8′ E.; lying on the high road to Bombay. Being a station of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, it has superseded HANDIA, which is 12 miles distant. Under the Marhattás an *ámil* or governor resided at Hardá; and on the opening of the campaign of 1817, Sir John Malcolm made the town his headquarters. Since the cession in 1844, this already thriving place has been further improved, mainly by Mr. J. F. Beddy, formerly Assistant Commissioner at Hardá, who among other benefits secured a good water supply by throwing a dam across the river. Principal trade, export of grain and oil-seeds. Pop. (1877), 9170.

Hardoi.—A District of Oudh in the Sítápur Division or Commissionership, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 53′ and 27° 47′ N. lat., and between 79° 44′ and 80° 52′ E. long. Area (Parliamentary Return, 1878), 2285·64 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1869, 931,517 persons. In shape, the District forms an irregular parallelogram between the Gumti and Ganges; greatest length from north-west to south-east, 78 miles; average breadth, 46 miles. Bounded on the north by Sháhjahánpur and Kheri; on the east by Sítápur, the Gumti marking the boundary line; on the south by Lucknow and Unáo; and on the west by Farrukhábád, from which it is separated by the Ganges.

Physical Aspects.—Hardoi is a level District, the highest point lying north of Piháni, near the Gumti, 490 feet above sea level. The country continues high along the Gumti, with a breadth of from 3 to 8 miles,

sinking eastward into the central plain, which is from 10 to 20 miles broad, and intersected by the Sái river. Beyond this plain the country again rises, forming the watershed between the Sái and Garra, with other tributaries of the Ganges, the elevation being from 470 to 480 feet. The main portion of the District is formed by the valley of the Sái. Beyond the Garra lies the valley of the Ganges, with an elevation of 396 feet at Sándi. Towards the Ganges, near Sándi and Bilgrám, the land is uneven, and often rises into hillocks of sand, cultivated at the base, and their slopes covered with lofty *munj* grass, whose large waving white plumes form a graceful feature in the landscape. Wide *usár* or saline plains run through the middle of the District on each side of the line of railway, and are almost wholly uncultivable. The soil of Hardoi is lighter than that of perhaps any other District of Oudh, 27 per cent. being sand, 56 per cent. loam, and 17 per cent. clay. The rivers of Hardoi, commencing from the west, are the Ganges, Rámgangá, Garra, Sukhetá, Sái, Báita and Gumti. The first three are navigable by boats of 500 *maunds* or about 17 tons burden. The Gumti is here a small river, whose dry-weather discharge is not more than 300 cubic feet; it has high sandy banks, and is easily fordable. The Sái is also an insignificant stream in Hardoi. There are no river marts in the District except Sándi on the Garra, and no fisheries or river-side industries are carried on, with the exception of a little timber traffic on the Ganges. Several large *jhíls* or lakes are scattered throughout the District, the largest being that of Sándi, which is 3 miles long by from 1 to 2 miles broad. These *jhíls* are much used for irrigation, 126,000 acres being watered from them. Large tracts of forest jungle still exist, and formerly afforded shelter to bands of robbers. Tigers have been exterminated, but leopards are still found in the northern jungles. Antelope, spotted deer, and *nilgái* are common. The mallard, teal, grey duck, and common goose are more abundant in Hardoi than in any other District of Oudh; and the chain of *jhíls* which dot the lower levels of the Sái valley abound in all kinds of water-fowl. Fine *rohu* fish are found in the Garra and Rámganga rivers.

History.—The early traditions of this District go back to the days of the *Mahábhárata*, and relate how Bálárám, the brother of Krishna, accompanied by Bráhmans, was making a tour of the sacred places of the land. On coming to Nimkhár, he found certain holy Rishís engaged in hearing the sacred books read; and as one of them would not rise to salute him, he smote off his head with a blade of *kusá* grass. In order to purge himself of his guilt, it was required of him that he should rid the holy men of a certain demon named Bíl, who dwelt in a lonely spot where now stands the town of Bílgrám, and who used to persecute the worshippers at Nimkhár, by raining blood and filth upon

their sacrifices. Bálárám accordingly slew the demon, and a low mound at Bílgrám is still pointed out as the site of his abode. Passing from mythological times, the first authentic historical records of Hardoi are connected with the Musálman colonization. Báwan was occupied by Sayyid Sálár Masáúd in 1028 A.D. The Shaikhs declare that they conquered Bílgrám in 1013, but the permanent Muhammadan occupation did not commence till 1217. Gopámau was the earliest conquest in Oudh effected by Sayyid Sálár; and descendants of the early conquerors are still to be found. The settlement of Páli by a Pánde Bráhman, a Risaldár, and a Shaikh, all three of whom are represented at this day by men of property in the neighbourhood, is a curious illustration of the occasional stability of oriental families. Isauli in Bangar was also conquered by Sayyid Sálár; but Sándi and Sándíla were not occupied until long afterwards. The latter was the capital of a Pási kingdom, which seems to have spread over the country down both banks of the Gumti and the Sái, extending from its original seat at Dhaurahra and Mitauli. The Pásis are still very powerful in Hardoi. Owing to the situation of the District on the eastern side of the Ganges, and to the fact of its commanding the fords near the great city of Kanauj, Hardoi formed the scene of many sanguinary battles between the rival Afghán and Mughal Empires. It was here that the Sharki kings of Jaunpur mustered their forces, and bid defiance to the Lodi sovereigns of Delhi. Here, again, the Khilji for a brief space rallied his forces against the Mughals, and established his headquarters at Bílgrám. In yet later times, Hardoi formed the border-land between the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh and the Rohillá Afgháns. It was this constant passage of armies which rendered the formation of any organized government in Hardoi impossible till after the accession of Akbar. In his time the whole ot the north of the District was a jungle, and the few settlements which had been made there were mere military outposts. With the Mughals, cannon came into general use; and the fords of the Ganges lost their former strategical importance, as the crossing of troops could be protected by the new engine of warfare. Hardoi then ceased to be the natural meeting place of eastern and western India; jungles were cleared; new Muhammadan colonies were established at Gopámau by Akbar, and at Sháhábád and Sándi by Sháh Jahán. It is not clear what were the precise relations of these Musalmán chieftains to their Hindu neighbours. The Bílgrám family pretend to have had authority over *parganás* Báwan, Sándi, and Hardoi. But the few villages comprising their present estate appeared to have been slowly acquired by purchase at different times, extending over a long period. In like manner, the Sándíla Musalmáns are not even mentioned by Colonel Sleeman as landlords, and the larger part of their property was acquired at a very recent date. The country was probably covered with jungle,

and the few scattered villages of Hindus were dominated by the brick forts of the Musalmáns. The principal landed clans of Rájputs are the following:—The Ahbans, really Cháwar Kshattriyas, who claim to have sprung from Rájá Gopi, and to have occupied GOPAMAU, having previously ousted the Thatheras, about 100 A.D. The Sombansis came from Kumhráwán to Sándi about 1400 A.D. Their chief was compelled to yield to the Musalmáns, but he retained Sándi for some time, and then abandoned it for Sivajípur, where his descendant still remains. The Gaurs, the most powerful clan in the District, occupy the central tract, having, as alleged, driven out the Thatheras from Báwan and Sára during the time of the Kanauj sovereignty, about 1118 A.D. The Nikumbhs say that they came from Ulwur (Alwár) about 1450 A.D.; the Katiars from Farrukhábád about 1550; and the Bais of Gundwá from Baiswára. Under native rule, Hardoi was the most turbulent of all the Districts of Oudh. It was divided into the *chaklás* of Sándíla, Sándi, Páli, and Tandiáon, the latter including the wild tract of Bangar, east of and along the Sái, in which the Pásis, the ancestral lords of the soil, had taken refuge, and maintained a guerilla warfare against all authority, Hindu or Musalmán, supported in many cases by their Kshattriya neighbours. Ahrori, in *parganá* Gopámau, was their main residence. Colonel Sleeman in his 'Diary,' under date 22d January 1849, thus describes the state of this part of the country: 'Tandiáon, 8 miles west. The country level; in parts well cultivated, particularly in the vicinity of villages; but a large portion of the surface is covered with jungle, useful only to robbers and refractory landholders, who abound in the *parganá* of Bangar. In this respect, it is reputed one of the worst Districts of Oudh. Within the last few years, the king's troops have been frequently beaten and driven out with loss, even when commanded by a European officer. The landholders and armed peasantry of the different villages unite their quotas of auxiliaries, and concentrate at a given signal upon the troops when they are in pursuit of robbers and rebels. Almost every able-bodied man of every village in Bangar is trained to the use of arms; and none of the king's troops, save those who are regularly disciplined and commanded by European officers, will venture to move against a landholder of this District. When the local authorities cannot obtain the use of such troops, they are obliged to conciliate the most powerful and unscrupulous by reductions in the assessment of the lands, or additions to their *nankár*.' This, be it remembered, was written in 1849, shortly before the annexation. Hardoi, together with the rest of Oudh, became British territory under Lord Dalhousie's Proclamation of February 1856. Since the Sepoy rebellion in 1857, civil order has been firmly established, and nothing has occurred to disturb the peace of the District.

Population.—The population of Hardoi District, according to the

Census of 1869, amounted to 931,517 persons, of whom 500,994 were males and 430,523 females; number of villages or townships, 1961—houses, 180,590; average pressure of the population on the soil, 407 per square mile. Hardoi is the most thinly populated District in Oudh, except Kheri and Bahráich. The Hindus number 845,293, of whom 54·1 per cent. are males and 45·9 per cent. females. Female infanticide was formerly extremely common in Hardoi, and the small proportion of females is probably due to the fact that the offence has not yet been altogether stamped out. The Muhammadans number 85,824, of whom 51 per cent. are males and 49 per cent. females; Christians, European and native, 48; 'others,' 352. The most numerous caste are the Chamárs, 144,208, who thus form 18 per cent. of the Hindu population. Next in order of number come the Bráhmans, 112,101; and the 44 clans of Rájput Kshattriyas, 75,708. These and the foregoing are mostly yeoman proprietors and cultivators. The other principal high castes are—Vaisyas, 25,631; and Káyasths, 9479. Of lower castes, there are—Ahírs, 65,214; Pásis, 62,367; Muraos, 49,440; Garerias, 30,815; Kahárs, 26,613. The strongest sections among the Muhammadan population are the Patháns, 15,584; Shaikhs, 11,926; Juláhás (Muhammadan weavers), 11,144; Sayyids, 5350. Only 809 are returned as Mughals. The Musalmáns reside principally in the large towns, but even in these they form the minority of the population. In some cases they have inhibited the building of temples; and recently, on a protest being made against a temple being erected by a Hindu Rájá on his own land in the town of Sándíla, it appeared on inquiry that no Hindu temple had ever been built in the town, owing to the bigotry of the Muhammadans. But such instances are not common, and Musalmáns often join in the *Rámlílá*, and other religious celebrations of the Hindus. Hardoi has a larger town population than the other Oudh Districts. Out of 18 towns in Oudh containing upwards of 10,000 inhabitants, 5 are situated within this District. None of them, however, are places of any trade, and only one, Sándi, is situated on a navigable river. The 9 largest towns and their populations are—SHAHABAD, pop. (1869) 18,254; SANDILA, 15,511; BILGRAM, 11,534; MALLANWAN, 11,670; SANDI, 11,123; PIHANI, 7582; HARDOI, 7156; GOPAMAU, 5949; and PALI, 5122,—all of which see separately. Of these, the first seven have been subjected to local taxation for the maintenance of a town police; but Hardoi town is the only regularly constituted municipality. The different villages and townships are thus classified in the Census Report of 1869:—595 contain less than 200 inhabitants; 655 from 200 to 500; 395 from 500 to 1000; 151 from 1000 to 2000; 32 from 2000 to 5000; 4 from 5000 to 10,000; and 5 from 10,000 upwards. The principal religious fairs are the following:—At Bílgrám, in September, on the occasion of the *Rámlílá*

festival, lasting ten days, and attended by about 40,000 persons; at Hattia Haran, during the whole month of Bhádra (August and September), attended by 100,000 persons; at Barsuya, in April and November, the *Pramhanska Samádh* festival, lasting for only a single day on each occasion, and attended by from 15,000 to 20,000 persons. These, together with several other smaller fairs, are held for religious purposes, and have no commercial importance.

Agriculture.—Rice, wheat, and other food grains form the great staples of agriculture. With regard to the crops cultivated, the seasons of sowing and reaping, rates of rent, condition of the cultivators, etc., the remarks on these heads made in the articles KHERI and LUCKNOW apply equally to this District. The area under crops is 844,560 acres, or 1319 square miles, being somewhat more than half the entire area. Excluding revenue-free grants, the area is thus classified: —59 per cent. under crops; 2 per cent. groves; 25 per cent. arable waste; 5½ per cent. barren; 5½ per cent. water area; 3 per cent. roads and village sites. A plough and pair of oxen are able to cultivate 6 acres of loam or clay, or 8 acres of sandy soil. The average price of wheat and *bájra* for the three decennial periods ending 1870 are returned as follows:—1841-50, wheat 3s. 5½d., *bájra* 3s. 2d. per cwt.; 1851-60, wheat 3s. 2d., *bájra* 3s. 1d.; 1861-70, wheat 4s. 2d., *bájra* 4s. 3d. per cwt. The average rates in 1870 for different varieties of food grains at the Mádhuganj mart were as follows:— Common unhusked rice, 4s. 9½d. per cwt.; common husked rice, 10s. 8d.; wheat, 5s. 11d.; barley, 4s. 2d.; *bájra*, 5s. 4d.; *joár*, 5s. 1d.; gram, 4s. 7d.; *arhar*, 4s. 4d.; *urid*, 7s. 6d.; *moth*, 7s.; *múg*, 5s. 7d.; *masuri*, 4s. 8d. per cwt. The food grains in common use among the peasantry are maize, *kodo*, *bájra*, and *joár*, made into bread-cakes; barley and gram parched and eaten dry; and peas, *moth*, and *urid* as pottage. Two meals are taken a day, at noon and sundown. Fish are abundant, and ought to form an important article of diet, but owing to the dearness of salt, the people are unable to cure them; and thus, while they are used as manure at one time of the year, there is a scarcity during the remaining months. Landed property in Hardoi is more evenly divided under the different tenures than is usual in Oudh. The distribution is as follows:—*Tálukdárí*, 392 villages; *zamíndárí*, 795; *pattidárí*, 753 villages. Of the total of 1961 villages, the various clans of Kshattriyas hold 1157; the Musalmáns come next with 406; and following them are the Káyasths with 157, and the Bráhmans with 150. Hardoi is conspicuous for the absence of the great feudal chiefships so common in other Oudh Districts. There are only 18 *tálukdárs*, holding altogether 432 villages (comprising 364,925 acres), and paying £36,035 of Government revenue. The largest estates are those of Khaslat Husáin, 53,857 acres, paying £5116; and of Rájá

ir Hardeo Bakhsh, 43,166 acres, paying £4406 of Government evenue. The small proprietors number 21,758, holding 1569 villages, covering 1,105,000 acres, or an average of 50 acres.

Communications, Trade, Commerce, etc.—The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway from Lucknow to Sháhjahánpur runs through Hardoi for a distance of 62 miles, with stations at Sándila, Kachoná, Sitápur road, Hardoi, Chándpur, and Sháhábád. There are also 329 miles of raised and bridged roads, and 73 miles of minor roads, intersecting the District. The principal imports are cotton, salt, country cloth, and European piece-goods; the chief exports being food grains, sugar, tobacco, horned cattle, and hides. In 1875, the value of the imports was returned at £102,952, and the exports at £62,977. The only manufacture of any note carried on is in the weaving of a peculiar description of muslin known as *mahmudi*.

Administration.—The judicial staff consists of 3 European and 6 native magistrates, besides 6 native honorary magistrates, all of whom have also civil and revenue powers. The total revenue of the District in 1871 amounted to £158,676, of which £145,213, or 90 per cent., was derived from the land; and the civil expenditure to £18,705. At the recent revised land settlement, between 1864 and 1868, the Government land revenue demand was enhanced by 42 per cent. In 1875, the gross revenue amounted to £170,952, of which the land contributed £151,396; total civil expenditure, £18,476. The present incidence of land taxation is at the rate of 3s. 4⅝d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 4⅝d. per acre of cultivable land. The regular police force in 1873 consisted of 436 officers and men, maintained at a cost to Government of £6610; the village watch or rural police numbered 2625, maintained by the landholders or villagers at a cost of £7350; and the municipal force of 85 men, costing £685 from municipal funds. Hardoi District possesses a singular immunity from crime. Education has made considerable progress. In 1873, there were 4762 scholars attending 102 schools (of which 13 were girls' schools). By 1875, the number of schools had increased to 142, and of pupils to 5877. There are no newspapers, or literary or educational societies, in the District; nor are there any poorhouses such as exist in Sítápur and Lucknow, nor any charitable endowments.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Hardoi does not differ from that of Oudh generally, except that it has perhaps the smallest rainfall of any District in the Province. The average annual rainfall for the ten years ending 1872 was about 32 inches, that of the Province generally being about 42. In 1873, the rainfall was only 21 inches, and in 1874, 31 inches, being the lowest recorded in Oudh in each year. The average mean monthly temperature for the three years 1869 to 1871 was as follows:—January, 59° F.; February, 66½°;

March, 75°; April, 75°; May, 92½°; June, 94½°; July, 87°; August, 86½°; September, 82½°; October, 77°; November, 69°; December, 61° F. Malarial fevers are the only prevailing endemic disease of the District, and are attributable to the extensive marshes. Epidemic cholera occasionally occurs, and small-pox prevails annually, generally in the cold season. Cattle diseases known as *paschima* and *kurá* are common.

Hardoi.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Hardoi District, Oudh; lying between 27° 9′ and 27° 39′ N. lat., and between 79° 52′ 30″ and 80° 31′ E. long., and bounded on the north by Sháhábád *tahsíl*, on the east by Misríkh *tahsíl* of Sítápur, on the south by Sándila and Bilgrám *tahsíls*, and on the west by Bílgrám. Area, 638 square miles, of which 359 are cultivated. Pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent transfers), 229,229, being Hindus, 216,275, and Muhammadans, 12,954; the number of males was 125,329, and of females, 103,900. Number of villages or towns, 504; average density of population, 358 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the 5 *parganás* of Bangar, Gopámau, Sára (South), Báwan, and Barwán.

Hardoi.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Hardoi District, Oudh; on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, 63 miles from Lucknow, and 39 from Sháhjahánpur. Lat. 27° 23′ 40″ N., long. 80° 10′ 5″ E. The town appears to have been founded more than 700 years ago by a body of Chamár Gaurs from Narkanjári, near Indore, who drove out the Thatheras and destroyed their fortress, the remains of which still exist in the shape of large mounds. The present town is largely built of bricks dug out of the old Thathera remains. Hardoi itself is a place of no importance; and was selected as the headquarters of the District on the occupation of the country after the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857, apparently for its central position. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 6317; Muhammadans, 839; total, 7156, residing in 1313 houses. The Government buildings consist of the usual courts, police station, jail, school, dispensary, *tahsíldár's* office, etc. Bi-weekly market. Hardoi has been constituted a municipality under Act XV. of 1867; revenue in 1876-77, £552, derived almost entirely from octroi; expenditure, £532.

Hardoi.—*Parganá* of *tahsíl* Digbijáiganj, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the little river Naiya, on the east by Simráuta, on the south by Rái Bareli, and on the west by Bachhráwán *parganás*. The land was formerly occupied by the Bhars, who succeeded in defeating a party of Sayyid Sálár's invading force about 1030 A.D. They continued to hold this *parganá*, just in the centre of Oudh, and far from any seat of civilisation, 400 years longer, till the beginning of the 15th century, when they were attacked and utterly annihilated by Ibráhim Sharki of Jáunpur, who bestowed the estate upon one of

his followers, Sayyid Jalál-ud-dín, whose descendants still reside in the town. Area, 15,561 acres; Government land tax, £3996, or at the rate of 5s. 1½d. per acre; pop. (1869), 15,706, residing in 23 villages, of which 15 are *tálukdárí* and 8 the property of village communities. The soil is very fertile, raising the best crops; and rents in consequence are high. In one township, Asni—celebrated for its tobacco—the rents are as high as £4, 16s. per acre. Kurmís are the chief cultivating caste. Saltpetre and salt were formerly manufactured, but this industry has been discontinued since the British annexation. Two small markets, in Atehra and Pára Khurd. About 15,000 *maunds* of wheat are annually exported to Lucknow and Cawnpore.

Hardoi.—Town in *parganá* of same name, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated on the road from Digbijáiganj to Bachhráwán, 12 miles north of Rái Bareli town, and 4 miles east of Thulendi. Lat. 26° 28′ N., long. 81° 15′ E. Founded by a Bhar chief named Hardoi, prior to Masáúd's unsuccessful invasion. On the extermination of the Bhars by Sultán Ibráhim of Jáunpur, a mud fort was built here, the ruins of which still exist. Pop. (1869), 1590, being Hindus, 1407, and Muhammadans, 183; number of houses, 260. Two masonry mosques, an *Idgah*, and Hindu temple.

Harduaganj. — Municipal town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 56′ 30″ N., long. 78° 11′ 40″ E.; area, 80 acres; pop. (1872), 6970, consisting of 6353 Hindus and 617 Muhammadans. Lies in the open plain, 6 miles east of Alígarh. Founded by Hardwá or Bálárám, brother of Krishna, but containing no remains to justify this mythical antiquity. Occupied by Chauhán Rájputs after the Musalmán conquest of Delhi. Plundered during the Mutiny by neighbouring villagers. Fine open *bázár* lined with good shops, police station, post office, school. Rámpur station on Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway lies 3 miles north; and the Ganges Canal, passing 1 mile east, carries off most of the local traffic. Imports,—salt, timber, and bamboos; exports,—cotton and grain. Canal irrigates surrounding lands. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £462; from taxes, £393, or 1s. 6d. per head of population (5200) within municipal limits.

END OF VOLUME III.

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